

THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

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THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ABROAD: A MEDIUM OF INTERNATIONAL INTELLECTUAL EXCHANGE

RICHARD H. HEINDEL

THE AMERICAN LIBRARY IN LONDON

THIS country has pioneered in expanding library services for its own public. It turned naturally and wisely to exploring the uses of libraries as an instrument in an international program. The American Library in London, conceived in August and established in December, 1942, by the Office of War Information in the United States Embassy, was the first official library outside continental United States. (It has been preceded by the privately managed American Library in Paris, 1920, and the Benjamin Franklin Library, opened in Mexico City, April 13, 1942, through a grant to the American Library Association by the Department of State.) Thus it became a pilot project for other Office of War Information libraries and information centers throughout the world. It was the first library energetically open to the public in any embassy anywhere in the world.

When the Office of War Information went out of existence, the American Library in London, along with other informational services, was transferred to the jurisdiction of the Department of State. Assistant Secretary Benton now places an objective of sixty-five library centers

high in the program of international information and cultural affairs. In January, 1946, a Division of Libraries and Institutes was established in the Department of State. The objectives of these outpost libraries have been the same. They deal in facts and solidly documented explanations on the assumption that the more the truth about America is known and understood, the better for all concerned. In varying degrees, depending on their origins, adaptability to foreign situations, management, size, and experience, they blend the familiar characteristics of reading-rooms, public and special libraries, reference centers, and information offices.

The American Library in London now has among its constant users all branches of the United States government and all British and other government agencies and subdivisions in Great Britain. It has built relations with about eight hundred organizations and societies and three hundred and fifty business firms. It has worked through and with about a hundred and seventy-five libraries. It has touched most of the schools—larger private schools, training colleges, on through to the universities, with some regard for regional coverage.

THE LIBRARY'S RELATIONSHIP WITH THE BRITISH PRESS

By systematic use a very large portion of the American Library collection has become the basis of printed comment. Perhaps in England more than anywhere else, it has been shown how much library material can become source material for current comment if some effort is made to assist the whole range of publications to whose use it can be adapted. One dare not undervalue the significance of such spontaneous comment, especially since the Library has no branches and since the Office of War Information did almost no mass distribution of its own within the British Isles.

Nearly all the daily, the Sunday, and, to a lesser extent, the provincial press and magazines, including the trade and technical press, have become regular clients of the Library, in spite of the fact that, because of a division of labor with other sections of the British Division of the Office of War Information, certain areas are not directly cultivated by the Library staff. The Library does not write special articles or make extensive, original research reports—it blends and suggests the raw materials.

The office record of printed comment is unsystematic and incomplete because nothing short of a cumbersome and expensive clipping service would give adequate coverage. Some of the items issued, for example, through the News Division turn up in print several steps removed from the Library and are difficult to document. Nor is it easy to ascertain the use made of Library materials by authors who have drawn on these resources for their books or by agencies charged with preparing publications for Europe. The staff must rely on imagination, spot checks on British newspapers and pe-

riodicals, and correspondence to appraise the trends.

Perhaps it should be explained, before proceeding further, that the staff examines nearly every page and item which comes into the Library with this question in mind: What four or five persons in Great Britain should be notified immediately that such and such is here, and who can make the most use of it? Often, but not exclusively, this assists the publications which put some value on news, on freshness. And this is true especially where so much print never reaches the cables or where many items are missed and hence remain for some time unique or rare.

All of this may seem like dull work. It is not. A thorough examination of the whole process becomes an appraisal of intellectual cross-currents, as exciting as being on crowded cross-roads of life and mind. Flowing in is the wealth of American life in print, sifted by such vagaries as the Atlantic passage, war, wartime shipping, and budgets. And one works within the British community, which never lends itself to easy explanations.

The raw materials with which we work are books, magazines, and documents published in the United States. Each item has its own peculiarities, and each class of publication its own more general characteristics. It is not that one has to make translations, but rather adjustments for use. And questions continually come up. What will critics do about American books not yet generally available? Do the British specialists already know the American specialized magazines? Do they know the general magazines that might occasionally be of greater interest to them? Where do hearings before Congress fit in with the ponderous monographs? There is the cold fact or information or experience, unaltered in the text, clear, and subject to

international consideration—but where does it stand in its country of origin?

Irrespective of such matters, which can be explored, there is always the problem of using the diversified materials wisely, especially those records which the United States produces normally for its own use or enjoyment—to record its life, experience, achievements, its critical explorations. No one country can absorb all of another country, not even its print.

One fundamental question, now that we are interested in the free flow of data and in the understanding overseas of our country, is whether we should be nervously concerned with our domestic output lest it completely mislead the world or be interpreted to mean what we think we do not mean. On the basis of our experience in England, the answer is that we need not be unduly concerned—certainly not to the extent of making pot-boilers for export. We ought not to trim and cut, and especially not to tailor to suit the whimsies of foreign countries. One may have to alter the sound track of our movies, but not the printed page. Nothing that has happened in England need lead us to censor ourselves severely in order to contribute our share to the total international flow of data; at the most, it has indicated some areas in which we could usefully add to our national output.

THE RANGE OF SUBJECTS AND TYPES OF DOCUMENTATION

Surrounded by a pocket of Americana, in an American embassy, one is forced to muse on developments in the homeland. To what extent has the war forced or retarded the expression or cultivation of fields of knowledge? Clearly some ground has continued to be plowed that England had to neglect after long years of war. But the output remains varied—confus-

ing, satisfying, annoying, slightly biased, slightly strident here and there. Much man-power, even thought-power, still goes into expression. New experiences are being put into print.

Censorship at home has not been such as to cause misgivings overseas. More than any other country, we air our dirty linen and show how we are washing it. There is still a luxurious padding upon original research and thought. The work of the years of 1939-42 is still creeping into print.

One becomes proud of the vigor shown. Often the appeal is sufficient to draw the emphasis away from science, technology, economics, and American opinions toward thought, belles-lettres, general literature, even sociology. Very often the commonplace is not commonplace when exported. The very local, unheralded item may have a place just as important as the best-seller. The well-thumbed desk handbook may be a great discovery in foreign parts.

The wares are good; and they are getting better. No student of comparative history would hazard the guess that everything has universal meaning or relevance. But the wares make the purveyor proud, especially in a community in which one can also be proud of the native products. The chances seem good that in the vast quantity from an articulate country there will be many items of quality that strike a response beyond our boundaries. And, at the worst, sometimes what is meaningless in content is suggestive in format.

The American book output is not out of line with the trends of interest in England. Indeed, given the opportunity, certain books could probably swamp the British market, in spite of many obstacles, because the native books have been delayed by the shortage of paper or

of authors. Moreover, the American university presses and many of our organizations and institutions seem to have a wider range and a greater wealth in output. This is one way of saying that in a pinch one seems able to find an American book on any subject or area of life—a fact which makes it easier to share our experience and which frequently leads to fruitful foreign appraisal.

A book once launched is very much like an idea. No one can quite ascertain the result. It may not be known at all abroad, or it may, regardless of merit, contribute more abroad than at home.

In the two and a half years since the Library began, probably no book as influential as *Das Kapital* or *The Origin of Species* or the *Institutes* has passed through the mechanism. Yet we may be wrong in making this judgment. Without overemphasizing the value of current products (or accepting publishers' blurbs), we must admit the possibility that in their applicability to this generation, in their bearing upon important events, some of them may turn out to be works of comparable stature.

One observation is reaffirmed by work overseas, namely, that American scholarship, writing ability, and good publishing, with few exceptions, have not got together to produce the short, broad-gauged, expert, well-illustrated, easily translatable exposition of any aspect of American life or thought. Our magazines will hold their own and so will the heavy monographs and the "basic" histories running to 550 pages and, more and more, the pamphlets; but there is a gap in the middle zone, the 100-page region, which would help the foreigners to begin and which surely would not harm the domestic population. (An exception can be made, perhaps, by citing some of our textbooks used for collateral reading,

but it is not very complimentary to rely solely on material addressed to juveniles; juvenility is not the same as brevity or simplicity.) There is a definite lack of short but adult books on, for example, American agriculture, sports, rivers, history, medical progress, clubs, birds, music, literature, lakes, states, politics, courts, eating habits, women, or any of the five hundred industries. If our concern with explanation overseas forces the growth of this mature distillation and writing, we shall be lucky.

Here and there, now and then, some subjects are covered more fully in American writings. This is true of certain fields of science and technology, of fuller explanations of industry and social life, and of the detailed study of mass education and communications. Sometimes a problem met with early in the United States has produced a useful account for London as a center of an empire—the T.V.A., many portions of agricultural bibliography, race relations, and the like. Sometimes it would seem that an unduly large portion of our sociological studies never escape from the specific problem into a broader social context, but this does not necessarily displease the expert. Our simple technical handbooks, as well as many of our school textbooks, equipped with various teaching devices, are sometimes suggestive.

Clearly, great credit accrues to the United States, as our native publishing industry and scholarship widen their coverage of knowledge of other countries. It should not have to be repeated that overseas it is just as important in our contribution to know not only the rivers of America but what the people on those rivers write about rivers of the world. This may explain why such items as the two-volume *Eminent Chinese of the Ch'ing Period* or *The Letters of Mary*

W. Shelley or The Scholar and the Future of the Research Library or English Social History (written by an eminent English historian but available first to the American public) can interest the daily press of London, and in a context which stimulates further exploration of whatever is in the American Library.

General and trade and technical periodicals form the two major classes of the six hundred American magazines received at the Library. Both reflect less wartime austerity in size, staff, content, and illustrations than do comparable British periodicals.

Naturally, the general, more popular, magazines are used constantly for background data and for special articles. Many of our popular magazines in native editions are well known here, especially the *National Geographic*, but are not so widely available as in peacetime. In this sense the Library's copies have a premium value, and much can be done to draw these magazines to the attention of journalists, editors, and others who often find them of important professional interest in carrying on their own jobs.

It is probably true that American magazines are being cited more frequently, within copyright limitations. In both classes there has been an increase in requests for exchange copies. Very often the flow of these magazines to important editorial points in England is not so comprehensive as one might expect; hence the increased value of working with a wide range of such periodicals in one place. There are many American magazines of both classes which do not have "opposite numbers" in England; but this does not imply that there is not an important, even though small, audience for such journals. The presence of this variety of magazines also encourages

and helps British writers to judge possible American outlets for their products.

Generally the aim has been to acquaint more of the British public with the variety of the American periodical output. Perhaps higher returns have come from directing attention to magazines that do not have mass circulation at home and do not seem to be sufficiently well known in England. In this category one could mention: *Saturday Review of Literature*, *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, *Business Week*, *Hospital Corps Quarterly*, *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *American Literature*, *National Parent-Teacher*, *School and Society*, *Monthly Labor Review*, *Infantry Journal*, *Survey Graphic*, *Book Review Digest*, *Books Abroad*, *Journal of Home Economics*, *Editor and Publisher*, *Public Administration Review*, and, indeed, nearly all the specialized journals in every field.

Often conscientious students of American opinion have not seen a sufficient sampling of our magazines of controversy and opinion. British editors of religious periodicals do not always see even their denominational counterparts. Our publications in the social field offer outlets that do not exist in England at the moment; this may make less easy the formal reporting of the contents of such journals, but the long-term influence is great even though such social reporting is not yet so highly specialized in Great Britain in any one or two magazines. Our trade journals have an added appeal because they seem to reflect the fuller reporting which is often described by foreigners as a special characteristic of American industry.

American magazines represent a very rich mine that requires more digging than can be expected even from the foreigner who is enthusiastic or personally

committed to following the world output in certain subjects or types of magazines. Abstracting may help a few, but someone like a traffic manager, with few prejudices and a personal touch, has here a job to do for some years to come. Special overseas editions, at their most expensive development, would be possible for only a very small part of the American output. Britons and Americans not concerned with publishers' gymkhanas can, nevertheless, foresee no contusions from any improvement in circulation.

Even at home the range and location of official publications of the federal government are bewildering; if to this we add the many significant items from the forty-eight states, we have a major problem of unfreezing frozen documents. Yet in these official publications, of which the Library has a fair sample, are recorded many of the most important aspects of our life in a rich, though sometimes forbidding, way. If we recall the endless possibilities of "Extension of Remarks" in the *Congressional Record*, there is almost no subject which is not covered. The scope has remained wider than that of the publications of His Majesty's Stationery Office under war circumstances. The federal documents are not copyrighted, which means greater freedom of use overseas. They are also very frank—to the extent that one must be cautious in countries where libel laws are strict.

It is quite true, also, that, unlike those of some other countries, our official publications are so varied that these documents cannot always be described as statements of policy. More often they are the preliminaries for the conclusions. They are in many ways the public tutor of a vast and democratic country. The existence of the publications of the Na-

tional Resources Planning Board is still an important fact, despite the death of the issuing body. As at home but, of course, to a greater degree, many types of documents have been practically unused in England: hearings before Congress, court reports, our intelligence reports on other countries, and so on. There are often news and human interest in these documents, which vary from one page to a few thousands. They are not always so statistical as alleged—witness the Marshall report on the Army and the first report by the Director of War Mobilization. But a traffic manager is needed here even more than with magazines.

It would be too much to say that one could have a good library composed solely of our official publications, but it would not be useless. We have not been in the habit of making these inexpensive documents easy for the American to buy; it has been different in England, where the population is accustomed to have the official publications offered for sale through official shops as well as through booksellers. This makes even more interesting the arrangement whereby His Majesty's Stationery Office acts as a sales agent for the publications of the Government Printing Office. But more relevant to the topic of this essay is the fact that from time to time during the last two years the Stationery Office has reprinted United States official publications—ten to date. Now and then, where the reprint has been wanted for a smaller or more specialized audience, the reprinting has been done by an association—for example, the report on interregional highways, which was issued in England by the Cement and Concrete Association. There is every reason to believe that several of these documents have sold more widely in Great Britain

than in the United States! This sales and reprinting agreement has emphasized in the information program the use of the normal, not the *ad hoc*, government document.

Perforce the news significance of many of these documents when issued in the United States is missed by foreign correspondents, who, anyway, could not cable in great detail. The editor and the journalist often prefer the full text for study, and it has happened frequently that, with a little regard for local needs, publications as much as two years old have been brought to light. One could cite many examples, such as the various Temporary National Economic Committee Hearings and Monographs, which have only now received the study they merit.

Obviously, there is a rush for any item which has been mentioned in cables from the United States, and this is usually an opportune time to draw attention to several other documents which have not been so honored. This clearly illustrates the point that the fuller the examination of such documents in print at home, the more probable it is that such documents will ultimately receive attention abroad. Hence, anything which expedites the sharing of the federal documentation with the whole American public sooner or later makes the dissemination overseas that much easier. Also, the cabling of full texts, wherever possible, should be encouraged; but there are obvious limitations to this process.

Quite frankly, with the exception possibly of the daily weather charts, practically nothing issued by the federal and state governments should be considered as too local to be of possible interest. (And even the daily weather charts which happen to drift in can put reality

into the classroom study of the United States!) The Bureau of Labor Statistics, for example, has prepared studies on various communities and the impact of the war on such communities as an aid to local planning groups; these, on first sight, seem very local indeed, yet they show how federal resources can help and, when the communities under study are matched with communities with similar problems in Great Britain, or with industrial specialities, trade and local journals will squeeze space for comment.

The wide range and hidden wealth of unofficial pamphlets, documents, reports, and the like require even more attention and are more difficult to use fully. Generally, these categories have never been handled by commercial channels because of little hope of profit, and it is difficult to see any improvement in the future. Whether pamphleteering has increased and improved in the United States during the war may be a question, but certainly much of the life of America is put into this form and into many organizational reports and limited near-print editions.

One might presume that American pamphlets and particularly organizational reports would have some circulation because of the natural interest of corresponding groups or organizations in England. And there is a great value if contact between such groups can be established outside of the Library. Here we are citing primarily those vast numbers of publications which transcend the group for which they were written in the United States. Many of our booklets and pamphlets are examples of the vast enlightenment or convincing process that must go on in a democracy, and these often are important for both method and content.

There are wide areas of publications

which are difficult to follow in the United States, even with such an index as the Vertical File Service or various trade-catalog services; but this is not a reason to suppose that special attention should not be drawn to such items overseas. It is often the ten-page mimeograph report that, properly handled, results in a healthful two-way exchange. And the pamphlet, often more easily understood abroad than a book and sometimes more adaptable for translation, should not be snubbed merely because it is as difficult for a library to handle as a book. Also, without trying to estimate their numbers, not many annual reports of our more national organizations are so barren of interest as not to strike a response, given some special care. Many of these publications are either free or very inexpensive and hence are not given much care by commercial agents.

In using such documentation, full explanations are frequently needed to guide the foreign users to place such publications in true perspective. This is a heavy responsibility because of the great variety of issuing agencies. Yet this very variety of purpose, size, representation, and methods is one reason for the world significance of American life, and the process of explanation can become a practical way to approach American history. Further, once there is a fair number of overseas libraries, the home servicing base gets more returns for the pains taken to canvass this field. And the issuing agencies themselves should attempt to meet legitimate overseas interests.

THE RANGE OF BRITISH PUBLICATIONS

Before discussing the wartime peculiarities of the British publications, let us first look at the general characteristics as they affect the work we have been

trying to do. There is not much language difficulty. There is a national daily press which tends to obscure the very important role of the "provincials." The press is a free press. There is a great variety, which may not, however, include certain specialities for which the United States has become well known. The printing and publishing industry, which has its ups and downs as does ours, is a proud one and perhaps is much more conscious of the importance of overseas readers. The tenor of much of the publishing is slightly different from ours because of the libel laws. The industry, even in normal times, would seem to achieve its output with fewer persons and lower costs in all branches of the business.

But it is the severe print and staff shortage coincident with the war that is important. This, coupled with an abnormality of communications, has been the principal wartime influence which conditions this aspect of our work. These factors are at work in newspapers, periodicals, and books, in house organs, members' bulletins, and the like.

The print shortage means that newspapers economize carefully on what could normally be turned into background and feature material. Magazines cannot always do justice to data which otherwise would appeal to them. Book publishers cannot let themselves get excited by a wide variety of books they would like to import or publish. Both the staff shortages and the abnormality of communications tend, however, to increase the value of whatever the Library can do in spotting and circulating information. In addition, the Library must have some knowledge of the editorial preferences and readers' interests. This is more important than a close scrutiny of audited circulations—where they exist. The writers and free-lance

journalists, as well as the editors, can be helped by the Library.

So far as our own work is concerned, we must sense the diffusion and pulling power of the various outlets. Often that appraisal must lead us to suggest data which do not, at first sight, seem directly of interest to this or that outlet. For example, a substantial study on housing by a trade-union may be wanted for evaluation by an architectural, a general labor, a trade-union, or an adult-education paper. And even under peacetime communications, one can be fairly certain that such an item does not reach overseas the entire professional audience which desires to know.

Obviously, the London daily press is interested in cabled information from their own correspondents or the press agencies or the News Division, which works closely with the Library. Often the News Division can supplement its cabled output by general releases to the press based on documentation which comes by mail. On occasion, as with Willkie's *One World*, the press is informed that a complete text is available for consultation in the Library. There are always limitations on what can be brought by cable by any agency, in war or peace; and this would indicate that the Library can always perform certain "news" roles as far as the daily press is concerned. Over and above the reference queries—the answers to which filter into print—that are but a part of the daily Library routine, the press has browsed through the Library, or has been informed of certain new accessions, and both of these activities will net ever increasing results as the papers gain more space and specialties.

The Sunday press, which is based in London, does not differ much in this respect except that perhaps it will al-

ways be more receptive to data which can make or help features. Except to the extent that Library data reach the provincial press through agency releases, the Library's service to that portion of the press must be done in a more intimate way, usually by correspondence. But here there is always an *x*-quantity of service that may be performed of a type which illustrates, further, the active role of interpretation which is encouraged on the part of editors and writers who have adequate data before them. There are a few columnists who write for a string of provincial papers. One of them, "Augur," has constantly referred to our books and documents, and, where it has seemed possible for us to cope with the demand, he has asked readers to get in touch with us by way of their local libraries. Our lending by post has often proved its value in print.

The general weekly, monthly, and quarterly magazines have different needs. Some have mass circulation, others have very little. They are more likely to benefit by the breadth of the documentation available. Here is where a specimen selection of publications on some topic often results in a basic article. The technique of spotting specialized information does not profit so much as with the trade and technical press. It is in this latter field that much has been accomplished. These journals often editorialize more than do similar American magazines, so that such data are used for something more than technical abstracting or reporting. Such use also stimulates the requests for illustrations.

I would not care to discuss the relative diffusion power of the general magazines and those magazines which appeal to specialized audiences. Some British observers lament what they call the weak power and status of these general maga-

zines, especially those of opinion. They say the weeklies, the monthlies, and the quarterlies have slipped. New magazines are always being planned. Some of them seem to represent a combination of appeals which closely resembles that of certain American magazines, and, as in the field of social work previously mentioned, they may conceivably furnish new outlets for American items that at the moment are not easily marked for special attention.

There is a tradition, which has some merits, that magazines will not review books (our reference copies) which are not given to them as review copies or are not available to purchasers immediately in quantity. With shipping and shortages what they are, this is a most serious block to an appraisal of the American output. American publishers and their British literary or publishing agents often have good commercial reasons for not wishing a preliminary listing or noting that such and such an item exists, even though experts and other consumers might want this knowledge. One must remember, however, that, even under conditions of normal supply, the greater percentage of American books will not be published in England or even imported in any quantity. And many of these are "news" and vital to the flow of knowledge and to the projection of the United States and should not go unnoticed.

For each item that suffers in remaining unpublished or unimported because of some preliminary appraisal which might be critical—to state one of the strongest arguments for this tradition—one could adduce a hundred contrary examples which would have benefited commercially both British and American principals, to say nothing of the general public. Obviously, there are

good reasons, if one can manage, to have a spare copy or so to help in this process, which may often take the form of encouraging interested editors or reviewers to apply for review copies directly through established channels. Where appropriate, some of these books are treated as "news" or a basis for comments rather than as formal reviews which may or may not (usually not) come later. This technique lessens the irritations of the readers who, we are told, would rather not know a book exists if they cannot get it and safeguards editors who think they might be sued for commenting on something not sent directly by the issuing agent for comment.

Perhaps the wide range of our collection is most useful to British literary agents, book importers, and publishers who serve in a long-term way. So long as our collection is up to date and comprehensive (perhaps more so with nonfiction than with fiction, which tends to have more momentum of its own), all such persons have a wider area upon which to exercise choice and discrimination and to calculate profit. This applies both to well-established firms with impressive lists and long connections with the United States and to newer firms which, no doubt, may have more need for guidance. The selection of books for publishing overseas (or translation) has always seemed a haphazard process, governed by many motives and factors; and anything which can assist or stimulate, even modestly, will help both the industry and the public, nay, even the creative writer, on both sides of the Atlantic.

Thus, the Library helps provide stimulation for more American books with British imprints. But this is not its only service to the book trade. In the books by British authors, in yearbooks, in revisions of encyclopedias and standard

reference books, the use of our collection often turns up in acknowledgments, prefaces, and footnotes. We need not labor this point, because all libraries of any significance attempt to give special help to the writer.

There are association bulletins, house organs, wall newspapers, abstracts, and bibliographies which are often more important than their appearance would suggest. For example, the editor of a confidential mimeographed bulletin which goes to at least fifty leading executives draws heavily and wisely on our resources, and his advice brings requests to us for borrowing, and to his own office for spare copies, from every part of the British Isles. This particular bulletin did much to convey ideas (those which were public property, not secrets) to benefit the joint war effort. *Hansard*, which is like our *Congressional Record*, contains the proceedings of Parliament, where one may often find American items referred to by Members in question-time or debate. Where Members on their own initiative do cite some document or book, the general response would show that this is an important bibliographical citation.

Because of the foreign-language press in England, much of the Library material has become familiar to Continental editors and readers, who, often for the first time, have been brought into touch with the American output. One might mention the *Biuletyn* of the Association of Polish Technicians in Great Britain. Sometimes, because of the facilities of London as a communications center, press agencies, travelers, and others have carried by print the information they found in this Library into India, Egypt, New South Wales, Switzerland, Sweden, and West Africa.

In all these activities connected with

these many outlets, copyright and the proprieties have been maintained.

THE ROLE OF THE LIBRARY AND TRENDS IN ITS USE

This institution can be described in part as a special library for the British community; it could have been merely a reading-room or a lending library. Within limits it attempts to give to the components of the community the same attention as a company library may give to its directors. Naturally, there are limitations to the amount of personal service, but common sense would dictate that the press which serves this nation should get high priority. As one organism in a framework of international information programs and intellectual co-operation, no one can minimize the practical working base that a library can give to real and reciprocal co-operation. It can be something of a common meeting-ground appealing to all types and tastes.

Likewise, every effort is directed toward stimulating an active native interest in the documentation and not toward pauperizing by doing detailed research or other chores which other people are paid to do. It might be impressive if we could give countless items to editors and the like; it might be alleviating if we re-wrote here and there; but certainly the end result is better if we have encouraged and helped others to put this documentation into their native channels in their own idiom, and sometimes by ways which have been not usual but certainly not dishonest. In time these methods might recapture something of the universal world of information which the Encyclopedists dreamed of and which some early scientists tried to convey by handwritten correspondence. There might even in time be devices

such as the microcards (books and documents co-operatively classified on cards with the text photographed on the reverse side), which could cope with the problems of copyright and research and the wealth of print all at one stroke.

We have tried by reading, conversations, hints, and rumors to gain some indication of the fields of interest of the British publications and those who write for them. We have tried to watch incoming additions with their possible interests in mind and have, without burdensome insistence, drawn these items to their attention. We have watched for news pegs. In short, as information specialists we have conceived of our job as that of an editor or reader for a great chain of publications and the library collection as a vast reservoir of "manuscripts" which are seeking readers.

American and other readers of an analysis such as this are always strongly curious about the trends of inquiries—who wants this or that information, and why. Two and a half years' experience in the Library has indicated several general trends which I shall try to summarize briefly.

Documentation is being referred to for increasingly serious purposes. The proportion of elementary questions has declined rapidly. Persons who are becoming at home with publications which they had never used express surprise and some regrets for their previous oversight. Presumably, this may have happened because some of the data have possessed a scarcity value which evokes a response even in a tough-skinned journalist. Almost without exception, users of all shades of opinion have examined and used this material within a framework of good journalism and professional integrity, even though the item in ques-

tion may have been counter to their—or our staff's—opinions or knowledge.

Great Britain has had a coalition government. But I doubt whether this has any bearing on what I have observed—that we are used about equally by the Conservative, Labour, and Liberal press. The subject fields of military affairs, industry, economics, education, science, international relations, politics, and American opinions have attracted more attention than art or music or literature, but not much more than the very broad aspects of American life which might be classified as history. A few persons are averse to using American documentation, but I do not detect any common characteristics among them; they may be professional people or they may be free-lancers; they may be poor or rich, radical or conservative.

There is another thing that awakens interest in American life, and that is the periodic examination of social questions in Parliament and public. A debate on housing or education or health insurance in Parliament starts a great many questions as to how we deal with these matters in America.

To say that one cannot predict with assurance the tenor of the conclusions that will be drawn by British commentators with American data before them is not to say that an information program is haphazard. The dynamic influence of sound information is justified in the long run.

If we define the *impact* of the United States so as to include (1) the knowledge of, or interest in, the United States; (2) the opinions and attitudes about the United States; and (3) the imitation, modification, or use of the American experience, we may apply this analysis more limitedly to the role of American

printed matter. The use of the data may stress now one, now another, of the three aspects. Further, no matter what the composite effect may be, a full critical examination of these data, or assistance toward it, cannot but be useful to Americans.

To give a sensible total picture of the printed uses would require an explanation which would come close to being a longish essay in British intellectual history. Let us, rather, try to set down a few illustrations—not necessarily the most exciting, the most significant, or the most convincing.

By tearing apart the reference copy of Stettinius' *Lend-Lease*, photostating, farming out the chapters to editors by agreement, and announcing on the news tape the whereabouts of the complete edition, the British press was able to give ample coverage to this volume on the date of its publication in the United States. There are probably more books than we imagine which could, with profit to the public, be given such attention.

Historians may well withhold judgment on Hoffman and Grattan's *News of the Nation*, a newspaper history of the United States, but I must select one comment from a famous press club: "You will not be surprised to hear that it has excited keen interest among our members. I have come across no one who has seen anything of the sort before, and the verdict is that it is an astonishing piece of work. . . . We wonder how British history would fit into such a scheme." Might we not expect in time, with adaptation and improvement, some results stemming from this, even though the club member may be wrong in saying no one in England has tried this technique?

The editor of a British hospital journal, not a regular subscriber, writes thus

of the special hospital number of the *Journal of the American Medical Association* dropped on his desk: "A most wonderfully informative number. Indeed, American hospital papers have always excited my greatest admiration—and envy! I think your country provides a grand yardstick for the common good in this branch of the press."

Two years ago, a few copies of the U.S. Public Health Code for eating and drinking establishments attracted attention because it fitted in with random observations made by American soldiers; recently one of these copies turned up as a feature in a daily newspaper which aimed at connecting it with some current local comment regarding the improvement of pubs.

The fact that the State Department has begun to explain its foreign policies by radio and leaflets has in itself provoked interest among journalists. The *Evening Standard* of May 16 says this: "To those responsible for the Conservative Party's ineffectual propaganda leaflets, I recommend a study of some pamphlets just issued in America by the State Department. . . . Obviously the pamphlets are the work of very competent experts in publicity. Perhaps the Conservative Party will take the hint." This sort of conclusion is, of course, not of our making!

Many items elicit a comment similar to that in *Fairplay* (February 8, 1945) regarding an investigation by the Industrial Hazards Division of the Bureau of Labor Statistics—"pursued with typical trans-Atlantic thoroughness," although it should be noted that this phrase may have derogatory overtones. Generally there is a majority which would agree with the *British and Colonial Printer* (March 22, 1945)—"the quality

of American technical literature always is excellent."

In 1941 the Department of Agriculture published *Family Expenditures for Furnishings and Equipment*. This can still be news, and worth banner headlines, if the "opposite numbers" have not seen it. Thus, the *Furnishing World*, for August, 1944, to whom this was shown:

America is a go-ahead nation. Most of us recognize this fact—some of us grudgingly—but do we ever ask ourselves why this is so? . . . The fact is that America owes a great deal of her progressiveness to these very ideas, and one of the most important of them is the continual survey she makes of individual industries. . . . If this could be done in such a widely scattered and widely populated country as America, why can't it be done in this country?

Then follow six pages devoted to the gist of the survey.

Often there is a call for action. The *Model Railway News* (February, 1944) in its leader states: "We have lately been privileged to see what is described as a 'Teacher's Kit, Railroad Transportation'; and, to make use of a vulgarism, we must say it is a real eye-opener. . . . We strongly commend the idea of this scheme to the attention of our own educational authorities."

Frequently those who have no interest in the United States find mirrored in her documents a core of experience which has meaning for specialists or practical men immersed in professional subjects or interested in the affairs of other countries. It must be repeated that often the best contribution is the service which transcends specific data about the United States. If the most recent article on Brazil's sugar industry appears by American hands in the *Foreign Commerce Weekly* and that article is reprinted with due acknowledg-

ment, at least three nations are benefited. This does not mean that the intention is to present the United States as an interpreter and an information service for other countries; rather, the emphasis is on the value of knowledge in general, whatever its source. True, this cannot be a priority purpose of our organization. In fact, it need not be proclaimed at all so long as the staff has imagination as to the range of the procedures which make effective the principal and stated purposes.

British correspondents in the United States, like their American counterparts, are not always awake to dramatic news stories released by various government departments. A mimeographed United States Treasury release on the capture of some international "drug barons," issued in Washington, drifted to us by post one month later. One of the London Sunday papers treated it as sensational news and a scoop two weeks later; I am afraid they prodded their correspondent in New York to dig more carefully thereafter. The footnote to this, it should be added, was that the story also gave some hints as to the efficiency of our law-enforcement officers.

When a Member of Parliament criticized on February 16, 1944, "There is no mention of *Infant Care*, which is a publication of the American Children's Bureau," he started a train of events which placed a copy of this publication in every important quarter in the British Isles. On November 28, 1944, a Member of Parliament asked the Minister of Labour "if, in the preparation of the booklet advising Service men on demobilisation and kindred matters, cognisance will be taken of the U.S. War Department Pamphlet No. 21-4, 'Going Back to Civilian Life,' published on 9th March last; and if he will ensure that

the British booklet will be at least as comprehensive and easy to understand as the American counterpart."

Some of the technical manuals produced by our War Department might just as well be marked "secret," because they are usually an unknown quantity to civilians. Editors have been glad to see these. I am certain considerable good was done for Anglo-American relations by getting long notices on TM 10-406, which was another name for "Cooking Dehydrated Foods"!

But enough of these illustrations. There are two general observations in conclusion.

Judging from the few appraisals one

can find, the American people cannot yet be fully aware of the overseas influences exerted by the printed matter which is so familiar to them. The influences will differ in every quarter of the globe. In a community as sturdy and sophisticated as Great Britain, one can be certain there will be healthy absorption, not an addled overabsorption, for mutual advantage.

The second point is that libraries (or should we stress the human element: librarians?) can view the years ahead with a renewed sense of imagination, service, and vigor. Granted this, they can claim to be one of the proudest and liveliest of the works of man.

JOHANN CHRISTOPH VON ARETIN: A RE-EVALUATION

E. HEYSE DUMMER

THREE major periods of secularization of church property loom large in library history in France after 1789, in Germany after 1802,¹ and in Russia after 1917. Each of these movements set in motion an almost overwhelming flood of bibliographic materials. In Bavaria the genius that channeled the rich resources of monastic libraries into the Hofbibliothek in Munich during the great secularization of the Napoleonic era was Baron Johann Christoph von Aretin.

The Bavarian state chose a capable and faithful man for a tremendously responsible position when it enlisted the service of Aretin, who, on March 24, 1803, began to visit the monasteries of Bavaria to search out and preserve a vast cultural heritage. The life-story of this man, upon whose scholarship and foresight depended the future status of Bavaria in the international realm of culture and learning, began on December 2, 1772, in the Bavarian town of Ingolstadt. Johann Christoph was the third son of Karl Albert von Aretin and Anna Rosina von Weinbach. In 1769 the title of "Baron" (*Freiherr*) had been bestowed upon the grandfather, who had served the state as chief customs inspector at Ingolstadt. His son, Johann Christoph's father, also worked for the Bavarian com-

monwealth, technically in the capacity of engineer and politically in assisting Elector Maximilian Joseph IV to establish the *Generallandesregierung*.

Johann Christoph was sent to the best schools, and it may be said that scholastically, from the first grade until the day of his graduation from the University of Göttingen, he upheld the good name of his maternal ancestor, the proud and learned privy councilor and director of the University of Ingolstadt. Law was his major subject at Heidelberg and Göttingen. Pütter, of Göttingen, took a special interest in his gifted pupil; was instrumental in getting him into the superior court at Wetzlar; and, by interesting him in legal research, helped pave the way for his entry into the Göttinger Sozietät der Wissenschaften (1795) and the Munich Academy (1796). That friends of Aretin's among the Illuminati, a secret society which fought obscurantism in Bavaria, lent a hand in making his membership in the Munich Academy possible has been surmised but never proved.

Aretin might well have been a member of this anti-Catholic society, but he always denied it. What he could not deny was the fact that he was a Catholic in name only. He had inherited in full measure that brand of rationalism for which his kinsman, Josef von Weinbach, the professor and most intimate friend of Adam Weishaupt, was both famous and infamous and which ran counter to the Catholic Weltanschauung. Aretin's biographer finds it possible to say: "Christoph looked at religion only from the political side. He identified Catholicism

¹ Previous to this period, book collections in monasteries within Germany were scattered or destroyed or came into new hands during the Peasants' War, the Reformation, the Thirty Years' War, and the French invasions in 1773 (cf. K. Löffler, *Deutsche Klosterbibliotheken* [Bonn: Schroeder Verlag, 1922], trans. E. Heyse Dummer [Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1944], pp. 64 ff.).

with the politics of the Middle Ages and linked the Church with obscurantism."²

Aretin married twice and had three sons. His marital and family relationships were not happy—perhaps because he never considered either religion or the family so important as the state.

An important year in Aretin's career was 1801. When his work as war commissioner had been finished shortly after the events that led to Hohenlinden (December 3, 1800), he took a leave of absence instead of returning to Munich to his post in the Bavarian state service, where he served as General-landesdirektionsrat. And so, early in 1801, we find him in the French capital. Aretin's main purpose in going to Paris was to make a study of the Bibliothèque Nationale and its organization. He also renewed contacts with scholars already known to him and made the acquaintance of others. Since Aretin was also a historian, Paris appealed to him; for history was being made every day in the capital of Napoleon, the soldier and statesman on whom the eyes of the entire world were focused. Aretin admired Napoleon, the protector of Bavaria, almost as much as he disliked Prussia, Bavaria's rival.³ Aretin's philosophy of state was monarchical, but he was also a radical. As such he believed that, in the great revolution that was still to sweep over German lands, Prussian aristocracy and feudalism would have to be uprooted with drastic thoroughness. His sanction of Napoleon in the era of the Bavarian-

French alliance and his censure of Prussia expressed itself in crescendo tones in a pamphlet, *Die Pläne Napoleons und seine Gegner in Deutschland* (1809). Aretin does not hesitate to celebrate Napoleon as the guardian and hope of Catholicism against the triple alliance of Prussia, England, and Lutheranism. Like Montgelas, Aretin believed that Bavaria also needed France as a protector and friend against Austria. He hoped for the success of the French cause in behalf of one God and one state, and, as a model "world citizen" (*Weltbürger*), he sought to justify Bavarian adherence to France.⁴

The record of Aretin's sojourn in Paris translates the Munich scholar's and booklover's admiration for what he saw in the Bibliothèque Nationale into meaningful language. It is not to be surmised, however, that Aretin became a convert to librarianship while in the hallowed precincts of the Bibliothèque Nationale. Since Aretin was a practical man as well as an ambitious one, he no doubt went to Paris to study library methods and management for a reason. The reason apparently was the appointment to the Hofbibliothek, which awaited him upon his return to Munich in 1802.

At the Hofbibliothek, Aretin was taken in as *Aufseher* in the History Division, a position for which he had been indorsed by his fellow-Academicians in the Königlich Baierische Akademie der Wissenschaften.⁵ That the new appointee was conversant with the subject division to which he was assigned cannot be disputed. Aretin's writings attest to his interests in the historical field as well as to his capability as a historian.

² Erwin von Aretin, "Christoph Freiherr von Aretin: Ein Lebensbild aus der Zeit des Ministers Montgelas," *Gelbe Hefte: historische und politische Zeitschrift für das katholische Deutschland*, III, Part I (1927), 327.

³ Aretin's fierce anti-Prussian attitude exhibits itself fully in his "Lettre d'un Saxon" (1810) carried by Huber's *Morgenblatt*. Napoleon's Marshal Davout had it translated into German.

⁴ M. Doeberl, *Entwickelungsgeschichte Bayerns*, II (3d ed.; München: R. Oldenbourg, 1928), 391.

⁵ F. Milkau and G. Leyh, *Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft*, III (Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1940), 612.

In substantiation of this claim may be mentioned *Ueber die westfälischen Friedensakten* (1802), *Nachrichten zur bayerischen Geschichte* (1809-10), *Literarisches Handbuch für die bayerische Geschichte und all ihre Zweige* (1810), and the essays in his *Beyträge zur Geschichte und Literatur* (1803-7). Aretin's interest in bibliographical history was evidenced in 1801 when he read before the Academy a study entitled "Von den ältesten Denkmälern der Buchdruckerkunst in Baiern und dem Nutzen ihrer näheren Kenntnis," which was published in the same year by the Academy.⁶ In 1796 Aretin had received a gold medal and twenty-five ducats from the Munich Academy for his prize essay on a subject in Bavarian history.⁷ Bavarian history was also his subject in frequent journalistic essays. Doeberl, who refers to Aretin as one of Bavaria's most ardent publicists, names especially two articles written at the time of the ratification of the Bavarian-French pact (September 28, 1805), "Die Oesterreicher in Bayern zu Anfang des 18. Jahrhunderts" and "Die österreichische Räuberei im Jahre 1742."⁸

It is not known what Aretin's relations were to Baron Casimir von Häffelin, court bishop and later cardinal and Bavarian envoy to the Holy See, who directed the Munich library as Oberhofbibliothekar from 1780 to 1803. We do know that Aretin chose to call his chief very deserving and scholarly.⁹ Doeberl characterizes Häffelin as *aufklärungsfreundlich*,¹⁰ which suggests that Aretin, who was all of that and more, probably

⁶ L. Westenrieder, *Geschichte der bayerischen Akademie der Wissenschaften*, Part II: 1778-1800 (München, 1807), p. 600.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 621.

⁸ *Op. cit.*, p. 406.

⁹ J. C. von Aretin, *Beyträge zur Geschichte und Literatur, vorsätzlich aus den Schätzen der Pfälz-bayerischen Centralbibliothek zu München* (München: Schererische Kunst- und Buchhandlung, 1803-7), I, Part I, 90.

agreed with Häffelin on major issues current in the renaissance of Bavaria. Whether Häffelin, who was also a member of the Academy,¹¹ had a direct hand in procuring Aretin for his staff in 1802 cannot be determined. But that he considered Aretin, his fellow-Academician, properly qualified for the post may be accepted as certain in view of the director's proposed policy in 1779 that only members of the Munich Academy should serve as *wissenschaftliche Bibliothekarsbeamte*.¹² As such, Aretin entered the Hofbibliothek in 1802.

In 1803 a successor had to be found for Häffelin, who was to go to Rome as Bavarian envoy to the papal court. Aretin was Häffelin's ideal; for he was a scholar and it was scholarship that Häffelin had emphasized when he recommended that the Hofbibliothek personnel should be expected to be productive in research relating to Bavarian history, national biography, and similar fields.¹³ There is reason to believe, therefore, that Aretin's scholarly productivity was a large factor in bringing him the spectacular and speedy promotion from the rank of Aufseher to that of Central- und provisorischer Oberhofbibliothekar on August 26, 1803. The promotion was spectacular as well as speedy, because Aretin did not proceed gradually from rung to rung up the ladder but was catapulted to the top position in an unprecedented manner.

An even more important factor accounting for his rapid rise was the work he did as head of the Commission on Monastic Libraries (*Klosterkommision*).¹⁴ He had been given this respon-

¹⁰ *Op. cit.*, p. 373.

¹¹ Westenrieder, *op. cit.*, p. 580.

¹² W. Sensburg, *Die bayerischen Bibliotheken* (München: Bayerland Verlag, 1926), p. 69.

¹³ *Ibid.*

¹⁴ J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, I, Part I, 87.

sible post on March 11, 1803, and he completed the difficult assignment in a truly admirable fashion. For eight months he went from monastery to monastery and selected the books which were to be transferred to the Hofbibliothek. This concentration of treasures in one place represented an inestimable gain to knowledge; and for the Hofbibliothek it meant that this institution was to occupy first place among German libraries for the next hundred years.¹⁵ As to Aretin, it must be maintained that he had an outstanding part in bringing the Munich library to fame. With his appointment as Central- und provisorischer Oberhofbibliothekar, recognition came even three months before the completion of his "literarische Geschäftsreise in die bairischen Abteyen," as Aretin euphemistically chose to call his assignment. In 1806, after additional success had been achieved, Aretin exchanged this rank for the permanent rank of Oberhofbibliothekar.

Aretin's greatest single achievement while librarian was his selection of incunabula, manuscripts, and books at the secularized monasteries. This work called for an expert scholar and bibliographic genius. Aretin was both. Furthermore, Aretin was the right choice for the commissioner's position because his attitude toward secularization was sound according to progressive government standards in the new Bavaria.¹⁶

The other commissioners appointed to accompany Aretin on the "literary journey" were Paul Hupfauer, a cleric and professor in the Bavarian state university, who was to make a selection for the university at Landshut, and Johann Schubauer, a councilor of the state board

¹⁵ Milkau and Leyh, *op. cit.*, p. 590.

¹⁶ Utterances such as are on record in J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, I, Part I, 98-99, and Part V, 99, prove this point.

of education, whose assignment was to earmark suitable material for the school libraries.¹⁷

Aretin informs us in his *Beyträge zur Geschichte und Literatur* of the detailed instructions which the library commissioners had to follow. They are set down in seven paragraphs and contain the following directions:

1. The libraries as charted are to be inspected as quickly as possible, and every commissioner is to segregate whatever he deems useful, whereupon he is to have the books he selected packed separately.

2. Two lists are to be prepared, which must be signed by the commissioners. One list is to be given to the local commissioner in every monastery together with the catalog.

3. Such books as are chosen in one monastery may not again be taken in another unless there are several editions of a book or unless for a specific literary reason duplicates are advisable.

4. The local commissioner must be told of books which contain superstition or any other injurious content, since they may not be sold at auction.

5. If natural history collections or antiques or especially good musical instruments and music materials are found, they may be considered like the book materials.

6. Whenever copper plate or wood engravings are contained in books with texts, it must be decided whether the latter or the former is the principal feature. Whenever the text is the main feature, the book must be sent to the library, otherwise to the cabinet of engravings.

7. Manuscripts and book materials in collegiate abbeys are, for the time being, only to be listed, since they have not yet been dissolved,¹⁸ and a copy of the list is to be turned in.¹⁹

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, Part I, 88.

¹⁸ The decree to dissolve collegiate abbeys was signed by the Elector on July 29, 1803 (see A. Kluckhohn, "Aus dem handschriftlichen Nachlaß L. Westenrieders: Denkwürdigkeiten und Tagebücher," *Abhandlungen der historischen Klasse der königlich bayerischen Akademie der Wissenschaften*, XVI, Part II [München: Verlag der kgl. Akademie, 1882], 74).

¹⁹ J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, I, Part I, 88-89.

Before Aretin and his associates left on their mission, several decisions were reached in a final meeting under the chairmanship of Oberhofbibliothekar Häffelin. It was agreed:

1. The three-man commission was to travel together and make its inspections together, and Bernhart of the library staff (who, according to Aretin, possessed a wide knowledge of incunabula) was to be a consultant.

2. Materials to be earmarked for the Hofbibliothek were to include (a) manuscripts, (b) incunabula, and (c) other rare and valuable book materials; however, if duplicates of the *b* and *c* materials were found, they were to be given to the university library; this library was also to have whatever manuscript material was necessary for illustrative purposes in the study of diplomatics. No literary rarities were to be set aside for the schools but only current material and whatever books might be useful in teaching.

3. Ignatz Schmid, a secular priest, was to take charge of listing and sorting duplicates at the Hofbibliothek.

4. The proper agency of government was to be petitioned for permission to visit (a) the former Jesuit libraries at Amberg, Biburg, Burghausen, etc., which by the order of July 28, 1789, came into possession of the Hofbibliothek but had not been transferred as yet; (b) several libraries in the new territories, as, for example, at Passau and Keyersheim.

5. The agency was also to be asked to provide suitable quarters for housing the many new acquisitions.²⁰

Aretin and his associates—forty in all—began their search on March 24, 1803, in Munich. Their itinerary included seventy-three monasteries, convents, and other religious institutions within Bavaria. To enumerate all the stopping places is unnecessary,²¹ but Polling may be singled out because of the size of its collection.

In the library of the Augustinian

²⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 91-92.

²¹ Sensburg lists the monasteries and the number of incunabula, manuscripts, etc., that were taken (*op. cit.*, pp. 71 ff.).

canons at Polling, Aretin stood face to face with over 80,000 volumes, including very valuable and rare materials in every branch.²² The Hofbibliothek was enriched with over 20,000 volumes from this library, including 653 manuscripts and 1,394 incunabula.²³ These figures represent the largest number of volumes selected in any one library by Aretin. His colleague Hupfauer claimed 7,354 volumes for the university library, and Schubauer took 2,500 volumes.²⁴ Of the remaining 50,000 volumes, 123 hundred-weight were sold as waste for 85 florins.²⁵

Books continued to come in from the monasteries until 1817. By that time the seventy-three monasteries in Altbayern and another eighty institutions in greater Bavaria had yielded 700,000 volumes, according to estimates made.

It may be assumed that the stock of manuscripts and incunabula in the monasteries on Aretin's list had almost all been attached.²⁶ We note, however, that "by far the greatest part of the more modern literature had been scattered or destroyed."²⁷ But at Oberaltaich and Niederaltaich, for example, the "neueste Literatur," according to Aretin, was carefully selected.²⁸

Georg Leyh joins the chorus of dissatisfied bibliophiles who have castigated Aretin for leaving valuable treasures behind in various monasteries. Rottenbuch, Kaisheim, and Indersdorf are singled out as examples of Aretin's negligence.²⁹ What Leyh and others before him forgot

²² J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, I, Part V, 89.

²³ Sensburg, *op. cit.*, p. 74.

²⁴ Milkau and Leyh, *op. cit.*, p. 588.

²⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁶ *Ibid.* ²⁷ *Ibid.*

²⁸ J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, IV, Part VI, 621.

²⁹ Milkau and Leyh, *op. cit.*, p. 588.

were the orders under which Aretin had to act.³⁰

For having safeguarded and centralized a vast treasure so that it might be made available to the world of scholars, Aretin received little thanks in his own day or later. Contemporary critics refused to recognize the thoroughness with which he had carried out the work and assailed him for amassing a mountain of books only as high as the Bavarian Alps but not so high as the Himalayas. They accused Aretin of negligence and held him responsible for mistakes which were made by some of the local commissioners assigned to the monasteries.³¹

Mention of these matters suggests a statement about Aretin's working method as head commissioner. He was a man of phenomenal memory. In this respect he resembled Van Praet, whose sobriquet came to be "le vivant catalogue," since he alone knew what books had come in from the secularized monasteries and where each book was. Aretin, like his distinguished colleague in Paris, knew all the incunabula and every manuscript in the Hofbibliothek. He relied on this knowledge when making his selection in the monastic libraries. What is more he knew exactly what he wanted when he came to each monastery, as is so graphically shown in the *Beyträge*.³² From the lists of such library visitors as

³⁰ J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, I, Part I, 88-89.

³¹ Cf. *ibid.*, p. 89.

³² The Tegernsee incident is especially illuminating. Here the monks had secreted various treasures, but upon checking the collection Aretin noticed at once that the rarest volumes had been removed. What he wanted among other things was "a manuscript from the Merovingian period, manuscripts from the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries, three of the earliest printed volumes, several parchment printed books, and the oldest incunabula." Aretin demanded insistently that the secreted material be brought out of hiding, and it was (J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, I, Part II, 55 ff.).

Gercken, Zapf, Petz, and others, Aretin made a mental chart of the location of valuable monastic treasures. He knew at first glance whether the Hofbibliothek contained the incunabula, manuscripts, and other materials in a certain monastic collection and whether a given volume was to be set aside for Munich or not. His overconfidence in his retentive powers, however, made it appear unnecessary to Aretin to draw up inventories at the various libraries. As a result, no doubt, some irreplaceable materials were lost. However, since Commissioners Hupfauer and Schubauer went through the same stock, oversights may not have been numerous. The critics did not realize that whatever it was that failed to reach Munich did not prevent the Hofbibliothek from becoming one of the largest libraries of the world in less than a year, mainly because of Aretin's knowledge of books, his zeal, and his national pride.

To accuse Aretin of negligence and to blame him for the errors of others is also unfair. A statement by Aretin contained in a memorandum addressed to the Library Administration Commission, dated September 18, 1807, sheds light on the matter in question. It relates a tragic episode at the monastery at Rottenbuch, where practically the whole collection—in accord with instructions that no duplicates were to be taken, the commissioners had picked out only a few rarities—was sold to a paper manufacturer by the local official in charge of the monastery.³³ Not Aretin but the system which neglected to institute efficient control measures was at fault. Michael Doeberl, the dean of Bavarian historiographers, points out in this connection that, since the

³³ A. Hilsenbeck, "Eine Denkschrift Aretins über die bayerischen Provinzialbibliotheken," *Aufsätze Fritz Milkau gewidmet* (Leipzig: Karl W. Hiersemann, 1921), p. 156.

Montgelas government had to take over a very inferior grade of state employee, such a tragedy and the various excesses which occurred could be expected.³⁴

Personnel considerations enter the picture in several ways. Thus, it may be pointed out that the staff which accompanied Aretin on the tour consisted of only forty men. That his staff was definitely undermanned, therefore, is very apparent. The record does not show that Aretin complained because of this condition. Economy was the watchword of the Montgelas government, which had inherited an empty treasury from its predecessors. Consequently, to have insisted on a larger staff would have been politically unwise as well as futile on the part of the newly advanced provisorischer Oberhofbibliothekar.

The time element also must be considered when evaluating the work and the method of Aretin's commission. He and his two associate commissioners planned on completing the work of book selection at the seventy-three Bavarian monasteries in three to four tours in accord with the letter and the spirit of their instructions "to search the libraries in the shortest possible time."³⁵ The following schedule was actually carried out: first tour, March 24 to May 24; second tour, June 13 to September 16; third tour, October 28 to November 19; fourth tour, November 20 to 29.³⁶ This schedule indicates clearly that the time set aside for the huge task of selecting many thousands of volumes was insufficient. Under such circumstances, it was natural that in the selection process some really important manuscripts and books would escape notice and be left behind. Aretin himself indicates how speedily the com-

mission did its work when he says they "flew" through the libraries.³⁷ Within the period from October 28 to November 7, for example, Aretin and his assistants had made selections at five different monasteries.³⁸ These Aretin described as being less important (yield: seventy-five books and manuscripts); but even if the speed of the searchers was lessened at the more important institutions, as it actually was,³⁹ nevertheless the fact still remains that the eight-month schedule was all too brief for the undertaking.

The process had to be a hurried one, however, in order to forestall unlawful removal or destruction of state property. In several localities rural and town folk alike actually desecrated or destroyed possessions of church and clergy;⁴⁰ and not only service books but also bibliographical materials of even greater value and less frequency fell into impious hands.⁴¹ The other group which had to be reckoned with in connection with book removal was not destructive like the rabble but nevertheless had qualities harmful to the state's bibliographical interests. The group in question constituted the dispossessed tenants of the monasteries. Aretin reports attempts on the part of the monks to conceal valuable

³⁴ *Ibid.*, V, Part IV, 430.

³⁵ *Ibid.*

³⁶ Because of the considerable incunabula treasure at Passau, for example, Aretin remained behind to complete the selection while his assistants were sent to three small near-by monasteries. The work at Passau required several weeks (cf. *ibid.*, pp. 398 and 420).

³⁷ Scheglmann gives the erroneous impression that secularization in most places in Bavaria was accompanied by deeds of barbarism (cf. A. Scheglmann, *Geschichte der Säkularisation im rechtsrheinischen Bayern* [Regensburg: J. Habbel, 1903-6], II, 64 ff.).

³⁸ G. Laubmann and M. Doeberl, *Denkwürdigkeiten des Grafen Maximilian Joseph von Montgelas über die innere Staatsverwaltung Bayerns (1790-1817)* (München: Becksche Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1908), p. li.

³⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 485.

³⁵ J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, I, Part I, 88.

³⁶ *Ibid.*, Vols. I, II, IV, V, VI.

manuscripts and books, as at Tegernsee, and even to remove books by sale.⁴² There can be no doubt that at least some important manuscripts and books were lost to the state in this way. And, since secularization was to be foreseen well in advance in Bavaria, wary monks disposed of individual items in a book collection or parts of collections before their belongings were impounded by the state. Obviously, Aretin cannot be held responsible for these defaults. Instead, his zeal and his success at ferreting out the hidden property of the commonwealth deserve recognition. But the anti-Aretin faction has chosen not to mention the tenacity with which the chief commissioner succeeded in discovering some of the greatest riches to be brought to the Hofbibliothek—riches which would otherwise have been lost.

That Aretin was zealous in his mission can be seen from the Tegernsee episode, which proves clearly that the chief commissioner knew not only what he wanted but how to get it even when it had been made to disappear. He acted in accord with his conviction that the larger community should profit from the resources accessible only to the few.⁴³ As an ardent opponent of isolationism in the book world, he translated his philosophy into a tangible realism while on tour of the monastic institutions, but without recourse to force or brutality.

There is also indication that Aretin exercised due care in distinguishing between public and private book property. When the monasteries were secularized, their book collections automatically became national property, which entitled Aretin, Hupfauer, and Schubauer to send to Munich whatever they selected from these collections. At Weiern, Aretin's

integrity was tested. Here was housed Professor Kirchmaier's large private collection valued at several thousand guldens and including some of the most valuable and finest editions of the classics. Since the name engraved in the books indicated private ownership, Aretin did not claim the collection. Kirchmaier's collection is in Munich today, as Aretin tells us in his *Beyträge*, because the professor's generosity and interest in promoting the common good led him to present his library to the Hofbibliothek.⁴⁴

In fine, after examining the evidence, all doubts about how Aretin handled the assignment of 1803 disappear. In fact, a recent surveyor of the library scene considered Aretin's workmanship while on his historic mission practically flawless.⁴⁵

It was one thing to select the books in the monastic libraries for transfer to the Hofbibliothek and yet another to provide adequate storage for a quarter of a million or more volumes, to process them, and to make them accessible to the research scholar. Before and during Aretin's "literary journey," space in the Hofbibliothek was much reduced by the acquisition of Elector Karl Theodore's Mannheim library numbering over 100,000 volumes. Thus Aretin's plea to the government in March, 1803, for adequate storage facilities was indeed necessary.⁴⁶ When the avalanche of books began to descend upon the Munich library, that reservoir was soon filled to capacity. Garrets and cellars were pressed into service, and one-third of the books were crowded under the rafters of St. Michaels, a church edifice adjoining the li-

⁴² Doeberl, *op. cit.*, p. 486.

⁴³ J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, I, Part II, 55 ff.

⁴⁴ A. Hessel, *Geschichte der Bibliotheken* (Göttingen: Pellems & Co., 1925), trans. E. Heyse Dummer (Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1943), p. 98.

⁴⁵ J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, I, Part I, 92.

brary. The problem of storage was a difficult one, but it was exceeded in difficulty by organizational and cataloging problems. Häffelin did not succeed in solving the riddle. Aretin might have done so had his plans, which expert opinion of today has pronounced excellent, been accepted by the Ministry, which had to pass on them.⁴⁷ Why official consent was withheld has not been divulged. There are reasons to believe that Aretin's suggestions required three essentials which could not be made available—trained personnel, improved working conditions and locale, and, most of all, funds to finance the project.⁴⁸

When Aretin became permanent head in 1806, his most important problem was to bring order out of chaos and make a great collection useful. Whatever memorandums on solving the problem of classification and cataloging the new director may have sent to the Ministry were not acted upon, since the question of organizational procedure was to be answered in connection with the reorganization of the Academy scheduled for 1807.⁴⁹ Instead, a provisional plan of work (*provisorischer Geschäftsplan*) was put into operation on April 13, 1806.

Aretin felt that if his library was to be a service institution, these masses of books would have to be made accessible and in as short a time as possible. Since these books were chiefly of interest to humanists. Aretin believed that subject classification, which the humanist does not consider important,⁵⁰ would not be

⁴⁷ Hilsenbeck, *op. cit.*, p. 154.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*

⁴⁹ A. Hilsenbeck, "Martin Schrettinger und die Aufstellung in der kgl. Hof- und Staatsbibliothek München," *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, XXXI (1914), 409.

⁵⁰ P. Butler, "The Research Worker's Approach to Books—the Humanist," in William M. Randall (ed.), *The Acquisition and Cataloging of Books* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940), p. 282.

desirable. He therefore decided on an alphabetical author catalog and put production into high gear. Five separate catalogs resulted, filling 124 folio volumes. Friedrich Jacobs, a patron of the library and later a member of the Bibliothek-Administrations-Kommission, states in a letter⁵¹ to J. W. Hamberger, who was later to be called to assist Aretin, that some twenty people were at work on the cataloging project. He complains, however, that the work was being done carelessly. Thus he found that *Iustinianus Caesaris Institutiones* was confused with the works of Julius Caesar and that a host of similar errors were being made.

The status of the Hofbibliothek at the end of the first year of operations according to the *provisorischer Geschäftsplan* was reported to the recently appointed Bibliothek-Administrations-Kommission⁵² by a Professor Stolz, upon request. Stolz does not find much to praise in his "Beiträge zur Kenntnis der königlichen Hof- und Zentralbibliothek nebst einigen auf diesen Gegenstand Bezug habenden Vorschlägen. Vom 25. September 1807." According to Stolz, only the collection of the presecularization period and a part of the Mannheim collection, which soon after the demise of its founder, Elector Karl Theodore, was annexed to that of Munich, had been properly arranged and given call numbers. Inaccuracies, moreover, had crept into the processing, which seemed not to

⁵¹ Reprinted by E. Petzet in "Die Münchener Staatsbibliothek vor 100 Jahren," *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, No. 225 (December, 1907), p. 422.

⁵² When the Munich Academy was reorganized on May 1, 1807, we hear of the Bibliothek-Administrations-Kommission for the first time. Through this agency the Academy was to govern the Hofbibliothek. The chairman of the commission was always to be the Oberhofbibliothekar. One of its five members was always to be the president of the Academy. Of course, as head of the Academy, the president was the Oberhofbibliothekar's superior.

have followed a clear and logical plan. Instead of one uniform author catalog, there were five. The catalog for the Mannheim collection was superior to the other four. The catalog for the monastic collections was still in process, with seventy folio volumes completed. All sorts of clerical help had been hired to copy titles on a piecework basis, each title netting one kreuzer. Our informant remarks parenthetically that the staff looked more sharply at the kreuzers than at the titles. He felt that the Mannheim collection should have been shelved separately and was vexed by a staff member with the title of "Hofrat" whom he found to be wholly unfamiliar with library procedure. In concluding his report Stoltz records the opinion that the Hofbibliothek was being run in a hit-or-miss manner and that the unsatisfactory conditions noticeable in this great book depot would have to be remedied.⁵³

The report of a Professor Keyser submitted to the commission, bearing the title "Ueber den gegenwärtigen Zustand der kgl. Bibliothek zu München vom 31. September 1807," is no more favorable than the Stoltz report. Keyser declares that the catalogs, excepting probably that of the Mannheim collection, had serious weaknesses both in content and in method. He believes:

They do not serve to show the way but are misleading, prepared by incompetent and inefficient persons. A revision has been begun which, however, is wholly futile since this is a catalog in which one cannot trust any entry because every author, title, place name, year of publication, format, yes, every letter is unreliable.

The writer asserts that a thorough revision entails a comparison of the vol-

⁵³ Quoted by Hilsenbeck, "Martin Schrettinger und die Aufstellung in der kgl. Hof- und Staatsbibliothek München," pp. 410-11.

ume with the title entry and implies that such a procedure is not being followed. He deplores the lack of certainty in organizational planning and the vacillation in practice which, according to Keyser, could lead only to "Desorganisation."⁵⁴

From Aretin's immediate superior, Jacobi, the head of the Munich Academy,⁵⁵ we hear both criticism and praise. Jacobi admits that Aretin took his work seriously and was constantly striving to master the situation at the Hofbibliothek. He mentions the various attempts by Aretin to make the great collection usable. His innovations, however, were of his own invention, since he was a very independent person and took counsel with no one on the staff. He believed in quick results and expected that his untried methods would produce them promptly in all departments of the library. According to Jacobi, the outcome was unsatisfactory; for, as he words it: "Chaos resulted instead of the order which Aretin feverishly desired and worked for and which was expected to ensue speedily in every department of the library."⁵⁶ Jacobi does not underestimate the huge task which devolved upon the chief librarian's shoulders. He realizes that Aretin's staff was limited; and, although he makes no direct mention of the scarcity of funds for library purposes—a factor partly responsible for some of the unpleasant hues in the gen-

⁵⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 411-12. This report is a part of the Akademie-Archiv.

⁵⁵ The North German philosopher, F. H. Jacobi, accepted the Elector's call to help organize the Munich Academy in 1804. Several of his friends were drawn to Munich soon thereafter. His biographer, Zirngiebl, states that he accepted the offer for financial reasons (cf. E. Zirngiebl, *F. H. Jacobis Leben, Dichten und Denken* [Wien, 1867], p. 117).

⁵⁶ Quoted by Hilsenbeck, "Martin Schrettinger und die Aufstellung in der kgl. Hof- und Staatsbibliothek München," p. 412.

eral picture—he most certainly must have been aware of it.⁵⁷ Whatever was accomplished despite these shortcomings Jacobi is able to praise when he says: "If one considers the size of the task and that only a small number of workers were on hand, it is only fair to praise what was accomplished under the circumstances."⁵⁸ In his next statement Jacobi speaks of the "serious shortcomings" which retarded book delivery. It usually required "a few days" to locate a book, and so he concludes that the library was useful only to patrons who possessed patience.

These observations were incorporated in a report sent to Montgelas by Jacobi on October 11, 1807, including also the opinion that Aretin was handicapped as an administrator because he lacked technical experience. Jacobi states that such experience could have been acquired had Aretin studied a great library's organization and mechanism. Had Jacobi not been told that Aretin had spent a year in Paris to observe the Bibliothèque Nationale in operation? He probably had, but to him, the Prussian, Göttingen was superior to Paris—a point of view enunciated in the very document under consideration, where he recommends that Aretin study the Göttingen system for six weeks *in situ*!

From a member of Aretin's staff we also hear criticism. Custos Martin Schrettinger censures his superior (1) for improper delegation of power, (2) for ignoring line and staff functions, and (3) for causing a decline in staff morale as a result of his negative attitude toward organizational relationships.⁵⁹ The experience of

⁵⁷ At this time the Hofbibliothek's budget was 6,000 florins (cf. "Bayerische Staatsbibliothek," *Minerva Handbücher: Die Bibliotheken*, Vol. I: *Deutsches Reich*, p. 547).

⁵⁸ Quoted by Hilsenbeck, "Martin Schrettinger und die Aufstellung in der kgl. Hof- und Staatsbibliothek München," p. 412.

administration has always been that these fundamentals may not suffer infringement,⁶⁰ and thus Schrettinger's charge reveals a serious shortcoming in Aretin's administrative practice.

When Aretin entered the directorship of the Hofbibliothek in 1806, he was confronted also by a personnel problem. He took charge of a staff of fourteen members.⁶¹ The discussion has already shown that the size of the staff and the size of the job were wholly disproportionate. The fact may now be added that this disparity was magnified by the lack of professional ability of various regular staff members. Stolz, as will be remembered, called attention to the inefficiency of a staff member. In his report to the Ministry, Jacobi also directed attention to the problem of personnel. He considered only two members of the staff professionally qualified—the ex-monk Martin Schrettinger, whose rank was that of Custos, and B. J. Docen, ranked as Scriptor. Aretin also valued the services of Schrettinger highly, but his rating of Docen is not known.⁶² Both staff members, however, were possessed of sufficient scholarship in the estimation of their chief to have some of their work included in his *Beyträge*. The same privilege was accorded Ignaz Hardt, deputy librarian and Greek manuscript cataloger, as well as J. B. Bernhart, Custos and incunabulist. Hardt was Aretin's

⁵⁹ Milkau and Leyh, *op. cit.*, p. 614; also Hilsenbeck, "Martin Schrettinger und die Aufstellung in der kgl. Hof- und Staatsbibliothek München," p. 413.

⁶⁰ M. Dimock, "The Place of Organization in Institutional Development," in C. B. Joeckel (ed.), *Current Issues in Library Administration* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939), p. 87.

⁶¹ On January 20, 1811, it was reduced to ten members (cf. Milkau and Leyh, *op. cit.*, p. 613).

⁶² Hilsenbeck, "Martin Schrettinger und die Aufstellung in der kgl. Hof- und Staatsbibliothek München," p. 412.

protege,⁶³ and Bernhart's ability as an incunabulist drew praise from Aretin as early as 1803.⁶⁴ Joseph Scherer, deputy librarian, stood in the good graces of Aretin, who employed him in 1806 and gave him a place in the library where he could use his knowledge of oriental languages.⁶⁵ What Aretin thought of the remainder of the staff—Custos Wigard, Custos Schmid, Unter-Custos Rhein, Secretary Schrankello, and Scriptor Roth—cannot be ascertained. It is interesting to note, however, that at least three men in addition to the two whom Jacobi thought professionally qualified, had merited Aretin's approval.

The relationship of the staff problem to the cataloging problem in the Aretin administration can be stated briefly. Hardt, Scherer, Bernhart, and Docen were scholars and specialists whose interests were not in general cataloging and the main author catalog but wholly in working on the manuscript stocks and making them accessible. Thus the specialist's work of cataloging the manuscript treasures was distributed as follows: Hardt, Greek; Scherer, oriental; Docen, Germanic. Bernhart had charge of the incunabula. Aretin, as we shall see later, took an important part in cataloging the manuscript collection.

The only able man left on Aretin's staff to interest himself in the production of the general catalog was Schrettinger. But by an irony of fate Schrettinger was not chosen by the Bibliothek-Administrations-Kommission to catalog the Munich collection. His "failing" was that he had not been trained in the Göttingen tradition. In his textbook Schrettinger

favored an alphabetical author catalog, which to the Göttingen circle was heretical.⁶⁶ In those days many thought bibliothecal salvation could come only via Göttingen. Surely, it was not merely a phrase coined by the general secretary of the Munich Academy when he wrote regarding the system of subject cataloging evolved at Göttingen: "For the past fifty years Germany has coupled with this name the concept of exemplary bibliothecal achievement."⁶⁷ The man who was called in 1808 to undertake the subject cataloging at the Hofbibliothek was the Göttingen-trained librarian, Julius Wilhelm Hamberger.

It is obvious that the problems which Aretin faced when he became Oberhofbibliothekar would have taxed even the ingenuity and resourcefulness of the best of administrators in our own day. Aretin's superior, Jacobi, in his report to Montgelas says as much in these words: "How to cope with the lack of space and personnel would have baffled even the most expert administrator. If these factors are properly considered, one cannot refrain from praise and surprise over what has been accomplished even now."⁶⁸ The incumbent in the Hofbibliothek in 1806, however, had to be more than an able administrator. The duties of the office required a man who was at once a scholar, an administrator, and a library technician—qualifications which even now are found only infrequently in the same person.

Aretin was not a trained library technician. His choice resulted, no doubt, from the belief that it is easier to add technical training to scholarship than scholarship

⁶³ Erwein von Aretin, *op. cit.*, p. 126.

⁶⁴ J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, I, Part I, 91.

⁶⁵ C. Moll, *Mittheilungen aus dem Briefwechsel des Freiherrn Carl von Moll* (Augsburg, 1829-35), IV, 1165-70.

⁶⁶ Hilsenbeck, "Martin Schrettinger und die Aufstellung in der kgl. Hof- und Staatsbibliothek München," p. 415.

⁶⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 413.

⁶⁸ Erwein von Aretin, *op. cit.*, p. 106.

to technical training. Aretin was undoubtedly a scholar. His scholarly ability showed itself not only in the manner previously stated but also in the field of descriptive bibliography. In describing the manuscript holdings of the Hofbibliothek he rendered a lasting service to the world of scholars. And with that project he paved the way for the work of an able successor in office a half-century later—the distinguished philologist, Karl Halm (1857-82).⁶⁹ That Aretin the scholar was in his real element while making the manuscript treasures known to the learned world through descriptive bibliography can also be seen from the nine volumes of his *Beyträge zur Geschichte und Literatur, vorzüglich aus den Schätzen der pfälzbayerischen Centralbibliothek zu München*. Consequently, Hilsenbeck can speak very highly of Aretin's scholarly efforts as to "wissenschaftliche Erschließung" of the Munich manuscript collection.⁷⁰

Recognition by the Bavarian government of Aretin the scholar was not long in coming. He was properly rewarded not in a monetary way but by being elevated in the hierarchy of scholars. The rank accorded him upon completion of the assignment in 1803 was that of vice-president of the Academy⁷¹ and in 1807 that of secretary of the Philologisch-Philosophische Klasse.⁷²

There remains but a brief review of the

⁶⁹ M. Burton, *Famous Libraries of the World: Their History, Collections, and Administration* (London: Grafton & Co., 1937), p. 183.

⁷⁰ "Martin Schrettinger und die Aufstellung in der kgl. Hof- und Staatsbibliothek München," p. 409.

⁷¹ Erwein von Aretin, *op. cit.*, p. 29; also F. Jacobs, *Personalien* (Leipzig: Dyksche Buchhandlung, 1840), p. 84.

⁷² *Denkschriften der königlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften zu München für das Jahr 1808*, pp. x and xxi.

library policies advocated by Aretin. Aretin was interested in centralizing at the Hofbibliothek all rarities, incunabula, and manuscripts held by the libraries within the state.⁷³ Although the Bavarian government did not formally adopt Aretin's proposal in a memorandum on centralization sent to the Ministry in 1807, nevertheless it did not restrain the Hofbibliothek from carrying it out when profitable returns were possible.

Aretin also advocated state supervision of libraries.⁷⁴ He thought such a measure all the more urgent since some libraries held requisitioned rarities which were ultimately to be deposited in the Hofbibliothek. The government apparently did not demur.

In 1804 Aretin appeared before the Landesdirektion to propose rural and regional libraries.⁷⁵ In accordance with requests from rural vicars and other potential beneficiaries, he recommended that rural or county authorities be granted the right (1) to make up collections from the residue of library materials at the monasteries within their district, (2) to establish suitable library quarters, (3) to appoint and pay librarians, and (4) to make the collection accessible to the public.

The hopeful pioneer in the field of state library extension in Bavaria visualized the establishment of about seventy libraries throughout the Bavarian countryside. His wish, however, remained unfulfilled. Aretin's motives and plan were commendable, but the reader's demand and interest had not entered his thinking. Obviously, the monastic collections were not gathered from the standpoint

⁷³ Hilsenbeck, "Eine Denkschrift Aretins über die bayerischen Provinzialbibliotheken," p. 154.

⁷⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 155.

⁷⁵ J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, II, Part V, 73 ff.

of nineteenth-century community interest. What really deterred and immobilized Aretin's crusade for rural libraries, however, seems to have been the problem of space, housing, and staff.⁷⁶

Aretin maintained an interest in regionalism, and in his memorandum of 1807 he advocated an extension of the regional program which was begun under his predecessor.⁷⁷ As a result of this request, Augsburg, Regensburg, Passau, and some smaller localities became regional library centers.

Aretin was ahead of his time in library thinking in that he rejected the view that libraries were to be merely storage places for books and librarians only custodians. He favored unhampered use of the resources of the Hofbibliothek by qualified persons. His plans were to make of the Munich library an exemplary service institution in accord with the promise in his motto, "Munich the book capital of Germany."

Aretin began his career as a lawyer and ended it on the bench of the Circuit Court of Appeals at Amberg in 1824. His directorship of the Hofbibliothek terminated at his request in 1811, but his interest in libraries never ceased.⁷⁸ He left the library scene in Munich fight-

ing Prussian infiltration into Bavarian politics and scholarship and Prussian ridicule of the Bavaria which he idolized. This, the so-called "Academicians' War," in which the librarian and his staff and the library and the Munich Academy play a significant part, forms a chapter by itself, however, and must be reserved for a future recording.

The man who withdrew from the directorship of the Hofbibliothek on April 2, 1811, had made a lasting contribution to the institution he loved. The rich stores of manuscripts and incunabula⁷⁹ which he had so diligently assembled are always to be remembered as the central design in the bibliographic fabric of the famous Munich depository. Under Aretin this library sped past the half-million mark. It was to occupy for a century the position of the first library in Germany, and it became one of the world's great libraries. When citing its rank, Aretin's contribution, however, is all too easily overlooked. Although his achievements were noteworthy, the attempt has been made by the pro-Prussian anti-Aretin faction to banish him from print and posterity. He has become the forgotten man in German library history.

⁷⁶ Milkau and Leyh, *op. cit.*, p. 592.

⁷⁷ J. C. von Aretin, *op. cit.*, II, Part V, 73.

⁷⁸ Sensburg, *op. cit.*, pp. 99-100.

⁷⁹ On the basis of Schottenloher's figures, Aretin took in well over five thousand incunabula (cf. K. Schottenloher, "Die Wiegendrucke der kgl. Hof- und Staatsbibliothek in München," *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, XXXII [1915], 167-68).

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY LIBRARY CO-OPERATION

SIDNEY BUTLER SMITH

CO-OPERATION—why, when, where? We can by now be fairly sure that co-operation is the order of the day in the United States, but we shall find it difficult to answer “why” except in general historical terms. From the beginning of this country’s existence there has been a noticeable national characteristic which has made for the formation of associations to accomplish common goals. By the time that De Tocqueville made his visit to the country and reported his reactions in *Democracy in America* he was able to comment that he had “often admired the extreme skill with which the inhabitants of the United States succeed in proposing a common object to the exertions of a great many men, and in getting them voluntarily to pursue it.”

And “when”? For all the historical proof of the existence of a co-operative spirit we have even more positive proof of the existence of a distinctly contradictory and more powerful spirit—the spirit of local sovereignty, the importance of the individual, and the right and necessity of free enterprise. The conflict between these two spirits is deep rooted and severe, making any resolution of it impossible until the advantages of co-operation in terms of efficiency, economy, and speed are so apparent that the originally dominant love of individuality is submerged in a mass of overpowering evidence for some co-operation. We shall have this co-operation usually, then, only when it is a last resort and only when a small amount of so-called “freedom of enterprise” can be

surrendered without loss of much independent thought and action.

It will take place—and has taken place—in practically all spheres of American life: in government—international, national, state, and local—in public welfare, in health, and in the schools. It has appeared in various library fields, and it is the purpose of this paper to show how colleges and universities have contributed to this ever increasing institutional co-operation.

As early as 1909 in a conference of the American Library Association at Bretton Woods the need for co-operation was expressed. It was pointed out that the libraries of the United States must somehow develop plans to pool their resources. Even before this there had been co-operative ventures such as *Poole’s Index*, but it is probably safe to assume that it was not until about 1910 that co-operation began to have supporters on a national scale. It is not surprising to find that little was done to further the cause until rather recently, though some of the early plans and problems were outlined by E. C. Richardson.¹ It has long been true that between libraries competition and not co-operative planning has been the rule. There is beginning to be considerable discussion about the subject now,² and, as will be seen, considerable action has already taken

¹ *General Library Cooperation and American Research Books* (Yardley, Pa.: F. S. Cook & Son, 1930).

² See, e.g., Robert B. Downs, “American Library Cooperation in Review,” *College and Research Libraries*, VI (September, 1945), 407-15, and the comments on it, 415-22.

place—action which it may be fair to say points the way to possible practice in the future.

This new co-operative spirit is due to several causes. Librarians and educators believe that the rapid library extension of the last fifty years is nearly over; the volume of print is becoming so large that it is impossible for any one library to have everything needed; research needs have become a regional and national concern and not just a local one; destruction of foreign libraries has been so great that the task placed upon American libraries for preserving all kinds of material has increased; financial difficulties have forced libraries to find other ways than purchase to supply the materials needed.³ Beyond these factors has been the librarian's desire to provide better service and to provide it at as low a cost as possible. The need for more adequate library resources has been evident, and the demands of research have been strong enough to make some kind of co-operation necessary.

What takes place when the need for co-operation is evident? First of all, a survey of the existing library resources is usually made to discover what various libraries have on their shelves and what kind of services are available. After this step has been taken, or as a result of it, some sort of union library catalog may be organized to gather in one place information about the resources of the libraries studied. Then the ways and means of making material available will result. It may be that there will be an extension of the interlibrary loan service.

³ Mildred Hawsworth Lowell, *College and University Library Consolidations* (Eugene, Ore.: Oregon State System of Higher Education, 1942). In lieu of citing Mrs. Lowell's book continually in the pages that follow, I should like to make a general acknowledgment here of its use throughout this paper.

There may be co-operative or centralized cataloging. Bibliographies and union lists may be produced. There may be a development of a bibliographical center. The various techniques of reproducing materials may be co-ordinated. A sort of specialization may be worked out whereby libraries decide which among them shall collect and preserve books in various fields. In some cases provision may be made for the construction of storage libraries for little-used or out-of-date books.

Whatever form of co-operation is decided upon, there will be some sort of agreement reached as to how it shall be accomplished. There may be a gentleman's agreement, there may be a contractual type of agreement, or there may be actual legislative enactments.⁴

Certain types and areas of co-operation have been defined sufficiently to warrant somewhat detailed inspection.

INTERLIBRARY LOANS

For fifty years there has been discussion about interlibrary loans, and the volume of such loans has increased appreciably over the years. These loans represent the oldest and simplest kind of library co-operation, and it probably can be said today that because of it the entire library resources of the nation are available to any serious student. This does not mean that the path of interlibrary loans has always been a smooth one. From the beginning there has been much discussion about what the service charges should be; what should be done about international loans; how the increase in the number of loans can be adequately handled; what the large library can do to prevent being sub-

⁴ Louis Round Wilson, "The Challenge of the 1930's to the 1940's," *College and Research Libraries*, I (March, 1940), 124.

merged under many requests; how special postal rates can be used to facilitate loans; and what the ethics and copyright status of microfilms and photostats are. Interlibrary loans are not so inexpensive and easily handled an item as one would be led to think from the ease with which they are filled today. Dr. Williamson has estimated that a loan from Columbia costs the university \$2.00, without counting transportation charges. In comparison with this, the circulation of the same book at the loan desk in the library at Columbia costs but 10 to 12 cents. Nevertheless, interlibrary loans will probably continue to be an important feature of all library activity, and their importance as an influence on co-operation and general library interactivity cannot be overemphasized.

BOOK STORAGE CENTERS

The problem of book storage has become so acute during recent years that various plans have been worked out to take care of old or unused books. In some cases plans have been far reaching, as in the foundation of the New England Deposit Library. A Middle West deposit has been proposed for thirteen large universities.⁵ This would be a storage center probably located near the University of Chicago.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL AND INDEXING PROJECTS

Union lists.—It has been suggested that the great present need is the preparation of a series of subject bibliographies,⁶ though colleges and universities have long made their collections avail-

⁵ John Fall, "A Proposal for a Cooperative Storage Library," *College and Research Libraries* III (December, 1941), 3-8.

⁶ American Historical Association, Committee on Historical Source Materials, *A Suggested Program for Augmenting Materials for Research in American Libraries* (1939), p. 7.

able to scholars through the publication of lists and bibliographies. A list of some of the more important guides that have been prepared will serve to show how extensive this type of co-operation has been. Such a list would include: *American Newspapers, 1821-1936*; *Census of Medieval and Renaissance Manuscripts*; *International Congresses and Conferences, 1840-1937*; *Union List of Serials*; *List of Serial Publications of Foreign Governments, 1815-1931*; *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education*; *Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities*; *Publications of Cook County, Illinois*; and *Atlases in Chicago*. Individual libraries have also published lists on special subjects to give students the opportunity of knowing where material may be found; for example, Brown University Library has published a catalog of its Napoleon Collection; the University of California Library a catalog of its books dealing with Spain and Spanish America; and the Baker Library of the Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, a catalog of the Kress Library of Business and Economics.⁷ Institutions have sometimes pooled their resources in a bibliographic list; examples of this are the union list of Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish Books in the Harvard College, Yale University, Cornell University, John Crerar, Augustana College, and Lutheran College libraries and the Library of Congress; and the union medical catalog of the Chicago area sponsored by the Chicago Institute of Medicine and housed in the John Crerar Library.⁸

⁷ Louis Round Wilson and Maurice F. Tauber, *The University Library* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945), p. 417.

⁸ American Library Association, Committee on Resources of American Libraries, *Resources of American Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1935), p. 7.

Surveys of library resources.—There is a growing tendency to give attention to what books libraries actually contain and to publish the lists. Surveys of resources are made of national, regional, or local collections. An example of the first may be found in the yearly *American Library Directory*; of the second in R. B. Downs's *Resources of Southern Libraries*, John VanMale's *Resources of Pacific Northwest Libraries*, and N. O. Ireland's *Subject List of Resources of Special Libraries in Southern California*,⁹ and of the third in R. B. Downs's *Resources of New York City Libraries*. There are, in addition, surveys of various university collections: Harvard, Chicago, Pennsylvania, North Carolina. An attempt has been made to describe materials in subject fields, one example of which is Gilder and Freedley's *Theater Collections in Libraries*. Colleges and universities also made their collections available to the Historical Records Survey in its work of making inventories of county, city, and state archives, as well as inventories of imprint, newspaper, and portrait collections.

Union catalogs.—The development of union catalogs in the United States may be said to have started with the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress in 1901. This catalog grew to nearly two million cards by 1927 and since then has grown phenomenally, having about twelve million cards by the middle of 1943. It is now necessary to encourage a closer relationship between it and the various local, state, and regional union catalogs which have grown up throughout the country. There are now sixty-five depository sets of Library of Congress cards, eleven more sets which are

made up in large measure of proof sheets, and one hundred and seventeen union catalogs of various types in the United States, many of which contain cards from college and university libraries. Among these should be mentioned the Union Library Catalogue of the Philadelphia metropolitan area, the Cleveland regional union catalog, the catalog of Providence libraries, the Union Catalog of the Pacific Northwest, and the one in Denver.¹⁰

CO-OPERATION IN ACQUISITION AND PROCESSES

While many of the plans for library co-operation are in only tentative form, it has been possible in some areas for definite agreements to be reached among university libraries. In Boston the larger libraries are dividing up the acquisition of certain serial sets. In Florida it has been possible to divide up the acquisition of certain newspapers. In Iowa the university purchases material in general medicine, while the state college buys only in veterinary medicine. Newspapers have been divided in New York City, with Columbia and the New York Public Library agreeing not to keep files of some of the same papers. In overlapping fields an attempt has been made by Columbia, the Museum of Natural History, the Engineering Society, the American Academy of Medicine, and the Numismatics Society to avoid duplication of material. The Union Theological Seminary specializes in theology.

When an expensive or specialized book is purchased at the Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore, notification is made to the Johns Hopkins University Library, the Goucher College Library and the Peabody Institute Library. If it is suggested that an expensive book

⁹ Ruth A. Diveley, "A Program of College Library Co-operation for Southern California," *California Library Association Bulletin*, V (September, 1943), 13.

¹⁰ H. A. Kellar, *Memoranda on Library Cooperation* (Washington: Library of Congress, 1941), p. 43.

be purchased at Enoch Pratt, a card is sent to each of the other libraries saying that the purchase is contemplated but will not be made if any other library will purchase. A reply postal card is used so that Enoch Pratt knows at once whether to proceed with the purchase.¹¹

In the North Central area there has been a division made on the publications of learned societies. Minnesota buys classics, general European learned societies, and material in Baltic literature; the University of Michigan specializes in French and Belgian local society publications; Newberry and John Crerar buy other European local society publications.

There have been a few examples of extensive co-operation in book purchasing, one of the most comprehensive being the purchasing done at the time the Carnegie Corporation made numerous grants to colleges and universities to improve their collections.¹² One idea that has been suggested but not yet carried out is that of John Dale Russell, to the effect that current books be purchased from a co-operative agency somewhat similar to the Book-of-the-Month Club. Experts would pick certain books which would be suitable for college and university libraries, and these books could be purchased from the central agency by participating libraries. In the Rocky Mountain region the libraries agreed to try the experiment of ordering all books through one jobber. The experiment seems to have worked successfully, for in 1941, a year after the Rocky Moun-

tain region was joined together by the plan, it was extended to the Pacific Northwest. In 1943 a plan was proposed which would include the whole western part of the United States. Recently seventeen southeastern states have joined a volunteer committee for the purpose of working out a similar agreement. This agreement is not a contract. The individual libraries are not bound to buy only from the jobber with whom the agreement is made, nor is the jobber pledged to continue the plan. It is, as Mr. VanMale says, "a gentleman's agreement, mutually advantageous, operating on the basis of good will."¹³

The problems of co-operative and centralized cataloging are extensive, not much progress having been made except on the national scale with the Library of Congress printing its own catalog cards and distributing them to other libraries in the country. There are also libraries—Chicago, Harvard, and Michigan among the universities—which prepare copy for the Library of Congress cards; but much needs to be done in the way of co-operative cataloging.

Microfilm and other means of reproducing materials have recently come to the fore, and there is some work being done to encourage the use of film. Brown University, Chicago, Columbia, Harvard, Michigan, the University of North Carolina, Princeton, Temple, the University of Virginia, the University of Washington, and Yale have rather elaborate photographic services; Illinois, Iowa, Johns Hopkins, Ohio State, and Pennsylvania have somewhat more limited facilities.

¹¹ Arthur Benedict Berthold, "Manual of Union Catalog Administration," in R. B. Downs (ed.), *Union Catalogs in the United States* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1942), pp. 316-17.

¹² William Warner Bishop, "Centralized Purchasing for American College Libraries," *Library Quarterly*, VII (October, 1937), 465-70.

¹³ Conference of Graduate Deans and Librarians, *The Development of Library Resources and Graduate Work in the Co-operative University Centers of the South*, ed. Philip G. Davidson and A. F. Kuhlman (Nashville: Joint University Libraries, 1944).

REGIONAL AND NATIONAL PLANNING

Colleges and universities have also had a part in the work which is being done on a national scale to encourage co-operation. While the organization of the Library Service Division of the United States Office of Education was not for the sole benefit of colleges and universities, they have benefited. The division was established in 1936 and began to function in 1938. Its purpose has been to collect statistics from all kinds of libraries, to disseminate information about the administration and organization of libraries, to provide a consultation service, to co-ordinate library service on a national level, to help in co-ordinating research, and to help in administering federal aid.

Also in 1936 the American Library Association Board on Resources of American Libraries was established. Its work has to do with increasing and co-ordinating the geographical distribution of materials for research. It has undertaken a study of American library resources and has suggested ways of action in the future. The board has sponsored R. B. Downs's *Resources of American Libraries* and has issued annual reports on important additions to American libraries. It was instrumental in getting the appropriation for the Pacific Northwest Bibliographical Center, and it sponsored a conference on library specialization in 1941.

The Library of Congress by inaugurating an Experimental Division of Library Cooperation in 1941 indicated that it was interested in assisting with the development of national plans.¹⁴ It has been said that the experimental

division was doomed to failure from the beginning, but it is possible to hope that a co-ordinating agency on a national level will sometime arise to perform this function. When it was in existence the division was active in discovering ways and means of developing co-operation. In developing the program it became apparent that it would be necessary to encourage a more widespread adoption of liberal exchange policies between libraries. A systematically organized and nationally co-ordinated policy of acquisition was also considered essential. A project was suggested through which a union list of bibliographies would be compiled, and a national want-list was considered an important thing to work for. When it is remembered that of the twelve million research titles in the world only about one-third are in the United States, it becomes evident that a very large co-operative effort will be necessary if American libraries are to attain even reasonably comprehensive coverage.

In 1946 "the value of cooperation is no longer debated; it is now a matter of deciding in what areas cooperation is most practical and possible and what methods shall be used for effecting co-operation."¹⁵ It will be well to enumerate as completely as possible those areas which have some regional basis to show how widespread and varied the co-operative movement has become.

NEW ENGLAND

Maine.—In 1939 there began to be the first activities of a co-operative and state-wide nature among some of the larger libraries in the state of Maine. Both college or university libraries and the larger public libraries were to formu-

¹⁴ U.S. Library of Congress, "Report of the Experimental Division of Library Cooperation for the Period April 7, 1941, to April 6, 1942," (Chicago, 1942), pp. 141-45 (manuscript).

¹⁵ Guy R. Lyle, *The Administration of the College Library* (New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1944), p. 24.

late some plans for keeping one another informed about new acquisitions. N. O. Rush, the librarian of Colby College in Waterville, has described briefly what has been suggested.¹⁶ Several of the libraries have collections of Maine material which have been indexed. Lists of these indexes and their contents are to be mimeographed and sent to each interested library. A round-robin letter, to be sent around the state, will contain a list of any unusual or expensive sets which any of the larger libraries has purchased. A more efficient scheme by which the libraries will offer their duplicates to one another has also been suggested.

Boston.—In Boston there has been constructed the New England Deposit Library,¹⁷ which will serve as a warehouse for some of the libraries of the area, affording storage for the less used books of the region. The project has a long history, having been suggested in general outline as long ago as 1902 by President Eliot of Harvard, who could even then foresee the problems connected with keeping available unused books. He proposed a co-operative warehouse in Boston and suggested that Harvard and other libraries send books to it for storage. Though the plan had little support at the time, it had enough merit to recommend it for future consideration; for in 1926 a group of Rhode Island librarians, faced with the same problem of storage, came back to it in planning for Rhode Island libraries. When interest in Boston became sufficient in 1940 to reconsider a warehouse plan, a bill modeled on the earlier Rhode Island

legislation was introduced into the Massachusetts legislature, was passed, and was finally signed in May, 1941.

In June, 1941, representatives of eight libraries conferred; and later, under law, the New England Deposit Library was formed. The eight original libraries were the Boston Public Library, the Boston Athenaeum, Boston College, Boston University, Harvard University, the Massachusetts Historical Society, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the Massachusetts State Library. These were soon joined by the libraries of Simmons, Radcliffe, and Tufts. Harvard University was asked to construct a building for the purpose of housing the unused books. Construction began in July, 1941, and by January of the next year the building was complete enough for the Victory Book Campaign to take over the basement as temporary storage space. In the spring of 1942 the co-operating libraries began to send books to the new building.

The present building, situated near the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, is one unit of a plan which will eventually make possible the storage of six million books. It is a modern brick building, five stories high, and contains, in addition to the stack space, a small reading-room for twenty readers.¹⁸ At present the plan is to keep the collections from the various libraries entirely separate, a union author catalog being used to locate material, with a rental charge of \$5.00 a year for each section of stack.

Connecticut Valley.—In the Connecticut River Valley region of Connecticut and Massachusetts, there are six relatively wealthy colleges. Four of them are

¹⁶ "Library Cooperation," *Maine Library Association Bulletin*, I (1940), 8.

¹⁷ Keyes D. Metcalf, "The New England Deposit Library," *Library Quarterly*, XII (July, 1942), 622-28.

¹⁸ Robert L. Work, "New England Deposit Library," *Library Journal*, LXVII (April 15, 1942), 358.

over a hundred years old; three are women's colleges, two are men's colleges, and one is partly coeducational; endowments range from over two million to nearly nineteen million dollars. Of the six institutions—Amherst, Connecticut College for Women, Mount Holyoke, Smith, Trinity, and Wesleyan—three are situated within ten to fifteen miles of each other in the center of Massachusetts—Amherst at Amherst, Smith at Northampton, and Mount Holyoke at South Hadley; and three in the lower Connecticut River region—Trinity at Hartford, Wesleyan about twenty miles south in Middletown, and Connecticut College for Women some fifty miles to the south and east, at New London.

Early in the fall of 1940 the librarians of the six institutions met upon Mr. Fremont Rider's invitation at his library at Wesleyan to discuss possible library co-operation. During the winter and spring of 1941 a series of conferences was held to test out the basic idea for co-operative work—the development of a single research library in the area to serve the needs of all six along research lines, while each library retained its own "college" or undergraduate library.¹⁹

The first step taken was an analysis of the holdings of the six libraries: first, of current periodicals; second, of scholarly sets; and, third, of miscellaneous books. Sampling showed that there was not so much duplication of holdings as had been supposed. It developed from the survey that six hundred thousand different titles were actually available in the region.²⁰ All matters pertaining to

a union catalog of the holdings of the valley colleges were thoroughly discussed at these preliminary meetings, and the conclusion reached was that no such enterprise could be recommended. It was felt, however, that a certain amount of duplication might be avoided by exchange of information and by increasing interlibrary loans.²¹ A catalog of the serials received at Amherst, Smith, and Mount Holyoke was made; and since that time these three libraries have co-operated in regard to the purchase of expensive sets, a list of all books costing more than \$10 being prepared and exchanged annually. There has been an increase in the number of interlibrary loans between the three institutions.

Up to the present time the co-operation in the Connecticut Valley is largely the result of the personal good will of six librarians in search of ways and means of giving better service and of saving a little money. Mr. Rider, the originator of the meetings, is interested in many of the problems of co-operation and has suggested a co-operative printed catalog of all the libraries. He would like to see considerable work done toward the co-operation and co-ordination of cataloging departments.

MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES

New York State.—From the early part of 1931 there has been some interest in co-operation in various library activities among the librarians of seven New York State institutions—Buffalo University, Colgate, Cornell, the Grosvenor Library, Hamilton, Syracuse University, and Union. These librarians formed a "society" called "Cluny"—"Cooperating Libraries of Upper New York"—for the

¹⁹ Fremont Rider, *The Scholar and the Future of the Research Library* (New York: Hadham Press, 1944), p. 76.

²⁰ "The Librarian's Report," in *Wesleyan University Bulletin* (October, 1941), p. 28.

²¹ "Report of the Librarian, 1940-41," in *Smith College, Report of the President* (December, 1941), p. 27.

purpose of meeting and discussing library problems. A union list of current periodical subscriptions has been exchanged between the institutions, the group of libraries has subscribed collectively to the project on film of English books before 1650, a newspaper census of New York papers has been compiled, a list of books and serials was made for Louttit's *Handbook of Psychological Literature*, and a checklist of New York gazeteers has been compiled. Co-operation is on a very informal, personal basis. Some of the meetings have suffered from lack of attendance during the war, and some projects suggested have been given up because of war conditions.

Philadelphia.—The library problem of Philadelphia may be described briefly as a problem in the location of books. There is no one great library in the city, but there are, scattered far and wide in every part of the city, medium-sized, semispecialized libraries, many of which are important for their holdings. A need was felt to get together in one place and in one file the catalogs of all the libraries in the area. Consequently, when in October, 1933, the professors of history in five or six of the larger institutions of Philadelphia formed a committee to work out means of accomplishing this co-ordination of catalogs, there was enthusiastic response; and this original committee was enlarged to include librarians and interested citizens.²² The Philadelphia Bibliographical Center and Union Library Catalogue has been formed and is now housed in the Fine Arts Building on the campus of the University of Pennsylvania. The Union Library Catalogue contains author cards for practically all printed material, and for some unprinted

material, in 154 libraries of the Philadelphia metropolitan area. It consists of about three million, three hundred thousand individual cards, representing about five and a half million volumes; about seventy thousand cards are added annually. The main function of the Catalogue is to locate specific items, and the center is open to anyone who wishes to consult the file or the bibliographies and reference books which comprise the collection. Nearly three thousand requests for location of books are received a month, three-quarters of them being for material in liberal arts and history, a tenth for material in social sciences, and the rest for material in the physical and biological sciences.

The technical process by which the catalog was made has considerable interest as showing what can be done with new developments in mechanical reproduction of material. In 1935 the W.P.A. offered to spend \$100,000 for labor. In January, 1936, the work of reproducing the cards was begun. Twenty-one Recordak machines were used, and within five and a half months three million cards had been photographed. Five thousand cards could be photographed on 100 feet of film, which cost \$2.75. When by the middle of July, 1936, the photographing of the cards was completed, 622 rolls of film had been exposed at a total cost of \$13,500. Cards for the Union Library Catalogue were then typed from the film.

NORTH CENTRAL STATES

Ohio.—A recent development at Western Reserve University offers an example of the merging of several libraries. In 1929 the office of director of libraries was established at the university; in 1934 a new library building was dedicated; and by 1941 a movement to com-

²² Union Library Catalogue of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area, *A Brief Account of the Principles and Formative Period* (Philadelphia, 1937).

bine some of the library resources of the city had met with approval, and the Case Library, Western Reserve University, Adelbert College, and the Cleveland School of Architecture were consolidated under the auspices of the university.

In the same year that the Connecticut Valley group met (1941), four libraries in Ohio agreed upon a plan of co-operation to avoid unnecessary duplication in building up bibliographical and other source materials and to share in the responsibility in purchasing books in designated fields of knowledge. The colleges include Akron University, Mount Union College, Hiram College, and Kent State University. A union list of periodical holdings was initiated as the first co-operative effort of the group.

It is also true that in Ohio—for example, at Oberlin—there have been contractual agreements made so that the college library serves as the public library for the whole community.

THE SOUTH

Durham-Chapel Hill, North Carolina.—The libraries of the University of North Carolina and Duke University have been able to display a rather large amount of co-operation in various ways on an entirely voluntary basis. The foundation for co-operation was laid in 1931, when the General Education Board gave \$30,000 to the University of North Carolina to purchase bibliographic materials for scholars, among which were the author cards from the Library of Congress and John Crerar Library and some from Harvard University and the University of Chicago. Real co-operation began in 1933, when a joint committee was appointed by the presidents of the two universities to formulate plans for possible future action.

In the spring of 1934 the General Education Board made another grant, this time of \$12,500, to duplicate and exchange the author cards of the Duke and North Carolina libraries. As a result, there was a large increase in the number of interlibrary loans—enough increase so that a daily messenger service was inaugurated in April, 1935, a station wagon covering the nine miles between the institutions at least once a day before the war cut down on this service. In December, 1935, the General Education Board gave \$50,000 for the purpose of building up the collections of the two universities in biology, physics, and the social sciences as well as in English literature.²³

It has been possible to work out in some detail the fields of specialization for which each institution is to be responsible. The University of North Carolina has agreed to buy the books in bibliography, library science, folklore, constitutional history, public health, geology, rural economics, and the French Revolution; Duke is to buy in forestry, religion, and medicine. In this connection, that of book specialization, it should be noted that in 1941 Duke and North Carolina joined with Tulane in New Orleans to co-operate in the purchase of materials on Latin America. The Rockefeller Foundation gave \$25,000 to each of the three universities, and the areas of specialization were outlined. The University of North Carolina agreed to be responsible for the publications of Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, and Chile; Tulane for the publications of Central America and Venezuela, in addition to publications in the United States relating to Latin America and

²³ E. Carl Pratt, "The Cooperation at Duke and North Carolina Universities," *College and Research Libraries*, II (March, 1941), 142-45.

to the interrelations of Spanish and Indian languages; and Duke for publications in Brazil, Colombia, Bolivia, Peru, and Ecuador, as well as publications in Portuguese.

The areas of co-operation in North Carolina have extended beyond those of book purchasing. In 1939 the privileges of both university libraries were extended to the North Carolina College for Negroes, and proposals have since been advanced to inaugurate some forms of collaboration with all the college libraries of North Carolina, South Carolina, and southern Virginia.

It should also be pointed out that the libraries are not the only part of the two institutions which have seen a co-operative spirit in operation. Numerous cultural activities have been jointly sponsored. Lectures, concerts, art exhibits, and scientific meetings have been presented by both institutions. The research facilities of the two institutions are mutually available, and the faculties of both have participated in joint seminars and joint field trips.²⁴

Georgia.—In Atlanta there are two examples of co-operation between libraries, the first being in the city itself, in connection with the six Negro institutions. Atlanta University is a privately controlled and coeducational professional school; Morehouse College is an undergraduate college for men; Spelman College is an undergraduate college for women; Morris Brown College and Clark College are coeducational undergraduate colleges; Gammon Theological Seminary is a coeducational seminary under the direction of the Methodist Episcopal church.

²⁴ Harvie Branscomb, "The Development of the University Center in North Carolina," in A. F. Kuhlman (ed.), *The Development of University Centers in the South* (Nashville: Peabody Press, 1942), pp. 50-51.

Co-operation began in 1928, when the General Education Board offered to erect a building at Atlanta University to serve all the Negro institutions of Atlanta if a satisfactory plan could be developed. By April, 1929, details of a plan had been worked out, and it was agreed that there would be an affiliation of Atlanta University, Morehouse College, and Spelman College. Under the plan, the professional and graduate work would be carried on at Atlanta University, while the two colleges carried on the undergraduate work. The General Education Board provided a library which cost \$300,000 and was endowed for \$600,000; this building was completed in 1932. It was arranged that Morris Brown College, Clark College, and Gammon Theological should also be served by this joint library.²⁵

In the development of the so-called University Center in Georgia, there are two interlocking examples of co-operation. Since 1933 the system of higher education in Georgia has been undergoing change. One of the aspects of this has been the merging of the College of Agriculture and the State Teachers College with the University of Georgia. This entailed the building in 1937 of a new wing to the library of the University of Georgia to make it possible to house the libraries and the appointment of a director of libraries in 1940.

Six institutions have been concerned with the agreements which now make up the University Center. Agnes Scott College and Columbia Theological Seminary in Decatur; Emory University, the Georgia School of Technology, and the High Museum and School of Art in At-

²⁵ Certain difficulties may arise from such a merger. The joint library is not really an integral part of the administration of the related institutions, and this, among other things, makes the book-fund allocation difficult.

lanta; and the University of Georgia at Athens and Atlanta have agreed to work toward the common end of better library service. Here would appear to be the nucleus of a significant program if practicable means can be found to pool the various resources. The total assets of the six institutions are about \$28,000,000. There are 750,000 volumes in the libraries of the six, about 12,000 students, 900 faculty, and 40,000 alumni.²⁶

The general idea for some kind of center had been developing since 1931. In 1934 a survey was made by George A. Works, on the basis of which conferences were held with business and professional leaders. In 1938 the General Education Board financed a visit by a dozen or more college officials and businessmen to some centers of co-operative activity in the East, and by October of that year agreements were entered into, setting forth the general outlines of the University Center plan. Direction of the center is vested in an Advisory Faculty Council of fifteen—four from the University of Georgia, three each from Emory and the Georgia School of Technology, two each from Agnes Scott and Columbia Theological, and one from the High Museum.

The first recommendation of the council was that there be established a union catalog. This was approved, and work has gone forward. This undertaking has involved in some cases the complete recataloging of the libraries. When finished, the union catalog will include complete author cards of the holdings of the six institutions and, in addition, will list seventeen other libraries in the area. Complete reciprocity in the use of libraries has been established, and the

institutions have undertaken to make available to one another as many of their resources and facilities as is practicable. A definite attempt is being made to avoid needless overlapping and duplication, and the principal attention is centered on developing graduate work of a high order. In addition, Emory University and the University of Georgia accept joint responsibility for the promotion of professional schools, while Emory and Agnes Scott have a rather detailed agreement for co-operation on the undergraduate level.

Tennessee Valley Authority.—The State Teachers College at Murray, Kentucky, serves as the regional library for three counties—Marshall, Calloway, and Groves. In 1939 a contract was put into effect through which the college also agreed to provide library service to employees of the T.V.A. The headquarters of the regional library are in the building of the college library, and the staff of the college is available to the entire region. The library of the Teachers College also assists the T.V.A. in organizing camp libraries, the work which the college does for the employees of the T.V.A. being paid for by the Authority.²⁷

When the Guntersville Dam was being built, many of the workers on the dam were housed twenty-four miles away at Huntsville. It was decided, therefore, that all recreational and educational activity would be under the direction of the Huntsville Library and the Alabama State Agricultural and Mechanical Institute, which is five miles from Huntsville.

Nashville.—Nashville is one of the most important cities in the United

²⁶ Goodrich C. White, "The Development of the University Center in Georgia," in Kuhlman (ed.), *op. cit.*, p. 34.

²⁷ Helen M. Harris, Kenneth R. Williams, and Cyril O. Houle, "A Survey of the Regional Library Service at Murray State Teachers College: Preliminary Draft" (Frankfort, Ky., 1945) (mimeographed).

States from the standpoint of its place in the whole picture of library development. Situated in the city are two important examples of library co-operation, both formed through definite contracts. One is the contract made between Fisk University, a Negro university with about five hundred students, and Meharry Medical College, a Negro school with over three hundred. In 1930 money was received from the Carnegie Corporation to build a \$400,000 library building to house the two libraries. In 1939 the Meharry Medical College library moved to its own quarters, and the areas of co-operation were redefined, the medical library being administered as part of the Fisk University Library.

The most important development in Nashville, and perhaps the most important in the United States, has been the construction of the Joint University Libraries. As long ago as 1914, Peabody and Vanderbilt University began a kind of library and instructional co-operation by making the library of each available to the students of the other;²⁸ but it was not until 1931, when Dr. Bishop and Dr. Wilson were called upon to make a survey of the library situation, that there was appreciable or continued interest in developing thoroughgoing library co-operation. The Bishop-Wilson report did not actually result in a plan, but it did pave the way for Kuhlman's call in 1935 to make another survey. As a result of this survey a new agreement was reached. The Joint University Libraries was established, and plans were made to build a library on a plot of land deeded by Vanderbilt. There was to be unification of all library services, with joint ownership of the building and books,

joint administration of the libraries, and joint ownership and administration of funds. In 1936, when Dr. Kuhlman was called in to be director of the libraries, one of his first plans was to obtain a Library of Congress depository catalog; and a union catalog for all of Nashville was inaugurated. This union catalog contains cards for the books in the Nashville Public Library, the Tennessee State Library, Fisk University, Peabody, Meharry Medical College, Scarritt, and Vanderbilt.

In 1941 the Joint University Libraries was opened to students. All the library resources of the George Peabody College for Teachers, Scarritt College for Christian Workers, and Vanderbilt University are now in one building, situated within a five-minute walk of the classrooms of all three institutions. The building was made possible through the gift of \$1,000,000 from the General Education Board, \$250,000 from the Carnegie Corporation, and \$750,000 raised privately. The dedication of the building marked the culmination of a full decade of institutional planning by educational foundations, higher institutions, and libraries. A new type of educational device has emerged, worked out as part of a program of curriculum revision and as a part of the study of how the demands of the curriculum affected the libraries. The city of Nashville is a center which can support graduate work of a high order, and the total resources for research in the nation are improved by the collection, which is now of sufficient importance to attract important gifts. The library will play a part in preparing more effective teachers and research workers.

Chattanooga.—An unusual arrangement has been worked out in Chattanooga as a result of an idea of Adolph S.

²⁸S. C. Garrison, "The Development of the University Center in Nashville," in Kuhlman (ed.), *op. cit.*, p. 53.

Ochs, publisher of the *New York Times* and of the *Chattanooga Times*. Mr. Ochs suggested in 1929 that the public library and the University of Chattanooga library be combined in one building. It was not until after Mr. Ochs's death that the idea was carried out, but the project was finally financed by P.W.A., the Chattanooga City Commission, and the Hamilton County Court. A portion of the university campus was deeded to the town and the county, the plot to return to the university if the building is no longer used for a library. A \$300,000 building was erected and opened in the spring of 1940.

The University of Chattanooga is a privately controlled university, with twelve hundred coeducational students and a library of about thirty-five thousand volumes. The public library serves the county also, with over two hundred thousand volumes in fifty-one branches; it serves both the white and the Negro population of the area. In the combined building the public library occupies two-thirds of the four-story structure and the university library one-third.²⁹

During the five years that the library has been open, there has been progress made in the field of co-operation, though the intention, from the beginning, has been to move slowly. There has never been enough money to do all that has been desired. Nevertheless, progress is reported in the number of interlibrary loans. When the building was built, the two cataloging departments were placed side by side, and there has been consultation since the beginning about book purchases. There is a small auditorium which has been used for joint programs and forums. The local medical associa-

tion was invited to have its own room and a section of the stack for its collection on local medical history. An attempt has been made to create greater interest on the part of the public school administration. A journalism library and a co-operative film library have been established.³⁰

New Orleans.—Two interesting examples of co-operation are found in New Orleans. Dillard University is one and the Howard-Tilton Memorial Library the other. Dillard University was formed by the consolidation of Straight University with New Orleans University, the former an American Missionary Society institution founded in 1869, the latter founded by the Methodist Episcopal church in 1873. The new university was created through a joint committee consisting of representatives of the board of education of the Methodist Episcopal church, the American Missionary Society, Straight University, New Orleans University, and the citizens of New Orleans. It was substantially aided by the General Education Board and the Julius Rosenwald Fund and was opened in 1935, when five buildings were completed on its new seventy-acre campus.

Straight University had a library of nine thousand volumes, which went to form the nucleus of the Dillard University Library. New Orleans University's sixty-seven hundred volumes were given to Gilbert Academy. Since the formation of Dillard University, money has been given by the General Education Board, the John F. Slater Fund, and the Carnegie Corporation to build up the collection. Dillard is for Negroes, but the library is open to the whole community.

The Howard-Tilton Memorial Li-

²⁹ Gilbert E. Govan and Adelaide C. Rowell, "The Chattanooga Library Building," *Library Journal*, LXVI (June 15, 1941), 543-47.

³⁰ Gilbert E. Govan, "The Chattanooga Joint Library Operation: An Evaluation," *College and Research Libraries*, VI (December, 1944), 31.

brary is founded on the collections of the Howard Memorial Library, the Newcomb College Library, and the Tilton Memorial Library of Tulane University. In 1938 an agreement was drawn up to merge the libraries, and in 1941 a new library building had been completed at a cost of \$700,000. The building contains three hundred and fifty thousand volumes and has a capacity of one thousand readers. The libraries of Tulane and of Newcomb (which is the women's part of Tulane) have been consolidated in the new building, but the Howard Memorial Library maintains its individuality and is housed separately within the building.

New Orleans now becomes somewhat of a university center. The city has several Catholic colleges—Loyola University, Dominican College, Brescia College, and Xavier College (for Negroes). There is also the Baptist Bible Institute, a theological seminary. Dillard and Tulane complete the roll of institutions of higher learning in the city, and Louisiana State University at Baton Rouge, eighty miles away, is a source of additional resources. Tulane and Louisiana State University exchange accession lists, and the location of New Orleans and its cultural history have suggested certain natural areas of specialization.

It should also be pointed out that Tulane is part of a co-operative scheme with Duke University and the University of North Carolina, which has been mentioned.

MOUNTAIN STATES

Denver.—In Denver there has been established a Bibliographical Center for Research, Rocky Mountain Region. This is housed in the Denver Public Library and was established by means of a grant from the Carnegie Corpora-

tion. The center has a large collection of national bibliographies, but the most important thing is a union catalog of three million cards, representing the holdings of the Library of Congress, the John Crerar Library, the Folger Shakespeare Library, and twenty principal libraries of the Rocky Mountain region.¹¹ From the beginning the libraries near Denver have been sponsors; among them are the following: Adams State Teachers College, Brigham Young University, Colorado College, Colorado School of Mines, Colorado State College of Agriculture, Colorado State College of Education, Denver Public Library, New Mexico Normal University, Regis College, University of Colorado, University of Denver, University of Utah, University of Wyoming, Utah State Agricultural College, Western State College of Agriculture, and Wyoming State Library.

THE SOUTHWEST

Northern Texas.—The area of northern Texas represents one of the most interesting experiments in library co-operation suggested in recent years. Three cities within forty miles of each other are situated in the region, and each has an institution of higher learning, one city having two colleges. At Denton there are the North Texas State Teachers College and the Texas State College for Women, at Fort Worth is Texas Christian University, and at Dallas the Southern Methodist University. Here is an area in which the possibility of constructive co-operation exists. Dr. A. F. Kuhlman was asked to come and survey the library resources of the region, and he submitted a detailed report, which may

¹¹ "Bibliographical Center for Research, Rocky Mountain Region," *Denver Public Library Biennial Report, 1939-40*, pp. 38-39.

well serve as a guide for future library action in the region.³²

Dr. Kuhlman concludes that it is highly desirable and feasible to proceed with plans for co-operation among the libraries of the region. To the institutional libraries already mentioned he would add also the public libraries in Dallas and Fort Worth. He further recommends that: the North Texas Regional Libraries should be organized, planned experimentally for three years; a director of libraries should be appointed; a union list of serials contained in the libraries of the region should be completed and mimeographed; serial resources should be systematically expanded with the expenditure of about one hundred thousand dollars for this purpose; reference and bibliographical tools should be purchased (for this purpose perhaps sixty thousand dollars could be spent); a program should be worked out for the development of document, newspaper, and manuscript collections; a union catalog of books should be studied; library expenditures for the various institutions should be increased to the rate of twenty-five dollars per student; and there should be extensive local co-ordination of library resources, with the foundation of a Friends of North Texas Regional Libraries established as one means of accomplishing this end.

To date, the director of libraries has been appointed and the union list of serials completed, with the prospect of more co-operation in the future.

PACIFIC STATES

Seattle.—In Seattle, at the University of Washington, another regional center has been established—the Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center. In 1940 the

³² A. F. Kuhlman, *The North Texas Regional Libraries* (Nashville: Peabody Press, 1943).

Carnegie Corporation gave \$35,000 to the Pacific Northwest Library Association to assist in establishing the Bibliographic Center. The center was established, first, to make the library resources of the region available to all who use libraries and, second, to increase and diversify the library resources of the region by making duplication of titles less necessary.³³ By January, 1943, the project of photographing the catalogs of four British Columbia libraries had been finished, and the union catalog which forms the basis of the center was nearing completion.

Oregon.—Oregon has made one of the most interesting contributions to higher education through the consolidation of all its six institutions of higher education. In 1929 the State Board of Higher Education was created by legislative action. A natural outgrowth of this action was the appointment of a librarian to be in charge of the library activities of the six institutions. In 1932 the first director of libraries was appointed. The University of Oregon at Eugene, the Oregon State College at Corvallis, the Oregon College of Education at Monmouth, the University of Oregon Medical School at Portland, the Southern Oregon College of Education at Ashland, and the Eastern Oregon College of Education at La Grande now make up the consolidated system of higher education. The whole process of library development has been a slow one under the centralized leadership. It has had to be slow, for the consolidation was achieved without the help of any outside funds. A central order department has been organized, and a union author catalog of the six libraries has been collected.

³³ John VanMale, "How the Bibliographic Center Works," *Pacific Northwest Library Association Quarterly*, VII (January, 1943), 94-95.

Stockton, California.—During the depression the College of the Pacific fell on somewhat evil days and had a difficult time meeting its expense accounts. In 1935 there was organized in Stockton the Stockton Junior College, but there was no plant in which the new college could operate. As a result, the plant of the College of the Pacific was rented to the new junior college. This naturally had some library implications. The College of the Pacific had a library of forty thousand volumes, and its services were made available to the faculty and students of both institutions. It was arranged that the books would belong to the College of the Pacific but that 75 per cent of the book budget would come from Stockton Junior College so that appropriate books for its curriculum would be purchased.

Claremont Colleges.—In southern California a good example of a contractual arrangement has been carried out between Pomona College and Scripps College. Pomona is a coeducational college of seven hundred and fifty undergraduates; Scripps is a college for women with a student body of slightly over two hundred. An organization known as "Claremont Colleges" was worked out to serve as the federation of the two and was planned as the institution which would offer graduate work. Joint library service began in 1931 with the planning for a joint library building. This was constructed and dedicated in 1932 on a plot midway between the two federated colleges. It serves as the central library and is devoted to the preservation of the materials related to graduate work. In addition, a joint order and cataloging department takes care of the technical processes of all the libraries. This co-operative venture may well form the center of regional co-operation in all of southern California.

SUMMARIES OF CO-OPERATIVE PLANS

A short summary, by date, of these co-operative plans will show that the concrete development of them has taken place in the last fifteen years. In some cases thought had been put into the planning before that, but the actual development of working agreements has taken place relatively recently.

1931	Claremont Colleges Fisk University "Cluny"
1932	Centralized Libraries in Oregon Atlanta University
1933	University of Georgia Libraries
1934	University of North Carolina—Duke University Western Reserve University
1935	Dillard University Philadelphia Bibliographical Center Stockton and the College of the Pacific
1936	Joint University Libraries of Nashville
1938	Howard-Tilton Memorial Library
1939	Maine T.V.A. and Murray State Teachers College Bibliographical Center for Research, Rocky Mountain Region
1940	Chattanooga Library University Center, Atlanta Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center
1941	New England Depository Connecticut Valley Ohio Colleges
1943	North Carolina—Duke—Tulane North Texas Regional Libraries

A further summary by type of agreement through which co-operation takes place shows the following pattern:

1. Informal agreements
 - Maine libraries
 - Connecticut Valley
 - "Cluny"
 - Philadelphia Bibliographical Center
 - Bibliographic Center for Research, Rocky Mountain Region
 - Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center
 - Ohio Colleges
2. Formal agreements between wholly independent libraries
 - University Center, Atlanta

- University of North Carolina-Duke University
- University of North Carolina-Duke-Tulane
- New England Depository
- North Texas Regional Libraries
- 3. Contractual arrangements between two or more libraries
 - Claremont Colleges
 - Chattanooga Library
 - Fisk University
 - Joint University Libraries, Nashville
 - Stockton and the College of the Pacific
 - T.V.A. and Murray State Teachers College
 - T.V.A. and Alabama State Agricultural and Mechanical Institute
- 4. Merging of two or more libraries
 - Atlanta University
 - Western Reserve University
 - Dillard University
 - Howard-Tilton Memorial Library
 - University of Georgia Libraries
- 5. State-wide co-ordination
 - Oregon System of Higher Education

To summarize the various plans which have been worked out to further co-operation between colleges and universities would only repeat what has already been said. Work has been done in a good many areas, and the spirit of co-operation is abroad in the land. Instead of summarizing, therefore, it would seem well to consider one large university library as an example of the variety and complexity of co-operative plans:

It buys catalog cards from the Library of Congress.

It prepares the copy for some cards of books which the Library of Congress does not plan to catalog and sends it to the Library of Congress for printing.

It has sent a member of the staff to the Library of Congress for three months to learn the method of preparing this card copy.

It has a depository catalog containing

cards from several libraries in the country.

It deposits cards for some of its holdings in the Union Catalog at the Library of Congress.

It co-operates in the making of union lists by checking its holdings.

It has a union catalog of material in art in the region.

Members of the staff prepare bibliographies of material in the area.

It spends much time and money on four thousand interlibrary loans a year.

It has agreements with neighboring libraries on purchasing policy.

It co-operates with twelve research libraries in buying Chinese materials.

It makes its collections available for national listing.

It takes part in a duplicate exchange union by sending to other libraries a mimeographed list of available exchanges.

It may become a part of a large storage-warehouse plan.

In these and other ways it recognizes that much of its work must be done by means of co-operation.

The time has not yet come when it is possible to give a very satisfactory statement as to the effectiveness of co-operation or to say whether one means of effecting co-operation is better than another. But we may well note the direction shown by the deans, faculty members, and librarians meeting in July, 1944, at Nashville as they, as an academic group, "endorse the idea and ideal of institutional and curricular co-operation" and think that co-operation "should not be the subject of legislation but the product of evolution and circumstance."

AN APPROACH TO THEORY AND METHOD IN GENERAL SUBJECT HEADING

MARIE LOUISE PREVOST

CHARLES A. CUTTER wrote in the Preface to his *Rules*: "But strict consistency in a rule and uniformity in its application sometimes lead to practices which clash with the public's habitual way of looking at things. When these habits are general and deeply rooted, it is unwise for the cataloger to ignore them, even if they demand a sacrifice of system and simplicity."¹ When he wrote this and charged us to enter compound subjects under their first word, he said, in effect, "The public is always right," and opened the way to the maelstrom of our present general dictionary catalog.

Cutter did admit that the proponents of the noun rule had a case. After quoting John C. Schwartz² on the noun entry only, he added: "This is plausible. If the public could ever get as accustomed to the inversion of subject names as they are to the inversion of personal names the rule would undoubtedly be very convenient."³ In saying this he conveyed a truth that he did not then care to have picked up and honestly tried out. Cutter was set, once for all, on the haphazard adjective approach to subjects; and all of us became set with him and thereby committed to a series of rules most of which contain provisions for their own reversal. The clear wisdom of Schwartz

¹ *Rules for a Dictionary Catalog* (4th ed.; Washington: Government Printing Office, 1904), p. 6.

² Schwartz had built up a short-number classification and a list of subject headings, using the noun approach, for his books in the New York Apprentices' Library.

³ Cutter, *op. cit.*, p. 73.

was swept into the discard; and slowly the subject currents in our dictionary catalogs have multiplied and collided until we do not know where we are going at any moment.

Why was so much stress laid by Cutter and his followers at the start on subject cataloging according to the "public" mind? The answer seems obvious. With other library fathers, Cutter believed that systematic arrangement by classes and their breakdowns would be adequately cared for by classification. Our present schemes were very young, hopefully starting to grow. He was still working on his own "expansive" (which was to be even more expanded) when he died. Systematic arrangement being thus provided for, it became a matter of small concern to bow to expediency in our dictionary catalogs; in fact, it became a virtue.

But this concept of "expediency" needs to be examined a little more closely. What is the "public" which we, in general libraries, serve through the catalog? Children, young people, adults; the expert, the inept, the illiterate, the savant; scientists, artists, authors, teachers, and—librarians. Once the diverse nature of the users of the catalog is recognized, it becomes a patent absurdity to speak of cataloging according to the "public" mind, as if that mind were a single entity.

Logically, there are two alternatives in attempting to construct a subject catalog for the use of the public. One is to try to incorporate in it all the entries which

any of the different classes of users may conceivably look for. The other is to construct it according to a system which can be understood by librarians—the group which uses it most and which alone is in a position to help those who do not understand it.

The first alternative is obviously impossible of achievement. Even if it were possible—which it is not—to discover *all* the entries which it might occur to all the users of the catalog to consult and even if it were possible for catalogers to include them all in the catalog, the resulting tool would be so huge, so unwieldy, and so confused, with the same subject appearing under various terms, that it would defeat its own purpose. The second alternative is feasible, and it is the one which I am proposing in this paper.

Our present practice, I think, represents a hopeless attempt to combine the two intrinsically incompatible alternatives—to have a system, but to modify it so that it will serve all users equally well. Its failure has been documented in theses and other studies by writers, who, accepting the assumption that the catalog is intended to serve the user (by implication, every user), point out that, to a greater or less degree, it does not achieve this objective.* The usual suggestions are (1) to make changes in the catalog on the basis of further study of users' needs and habits, subserving the latter, and (2) to train users in the intelligent use of the catalog by teaching them the rules on which it is based. The first suggestion, for reasons which have already been pointed out, is impracticable except, perhaps, for a special library

serving a relatively small and homogeneous group. The second suggestion would be excellent if we had a simple and logical set of rules which were consistently applied; but that is what, in our attempt to make the catalog all things to all men, we are helplessly getting further and further away from.

No existing general list of subject headings, in its entirety, is a logically thought-out product. All are full of the inconsistencies and conflicting ideas concurrent on just growing. This does not mean that no rules have been made and followed; rather, it means that the rules are inconclusive and, particularly, that they themselves were not disciplined and co-ordinated prior to application, nor was there any intention to make them inflexible. Concession (mostly tacit) has been made to habit and to the difficulties of change. An attempt to arrive fully at the principles underlying any list from an examination of the list itself is foredoomed to failure. All existing lists are inadequate, not easy to lean upon mentally, unsystematic. Nowhere are we directly instructed or sufficiently assisted by analogy in the assignment of headings to new subjects or to new aspects of old subjects. And up to the present we have spent our thought on detail in the effort to improve things as they are—an approach that has got us nowhere.

The only way to produce a clear theory is to cast loose all ties with the past for the time being; to analyze our objectives and our practices; and then to reconstitute. And in this reconstitution of the catalog it seems clear to me that our aim must be to make it a simpler tool for the librarian and, with a modicum of initiation, for the intelligent reader. The less intelligent must lean on professional competence—as, in fact, they

*See, e.g., Patricia B. Knapp, "The Subject Catalog in the College Library: An Investigation of Terminology," *Library Quarterly*, XIV (July, 1944), 214-28.

always have done. In other words, we must make plain the truth that no one can use a catalog who does not know how, and, for those who do know how, we must make its use quicker, easier, and more sure, disavowing openly and without shame the pretense that it can be, successfully, a free-for-all.

The following suggestions, then, are intended to clarify the approach to subject headings, primarily for the staff and secondarily for those other users to whom the staff imparts its not very complicated skill.

CURRENT USAGE VERSUS THE NOUN APPROACH

Let us look briefly at the types of headings now in use and their arrangement in the catalog.

A. For subjects other than place, person, or name of event: (1) noun; (2) noun plus subhead after dash; (3) noun plus adjective inverted after comma, or noun plus qualifying noun inverted after comma; (4) adjective plus direct subject noun; (5) adjective plus indeterminate noun, or adjectival phrase; (6) qualifying noun plus direct subject noun; (7) noun plus qualifying word in parentheses; (8) noun followed by "and —" (composite heading); (9) noun followed by prepositional phrase.

B. For names of events: sometimes entered under name of event, sometimes with name of event as subhead.

C. For place names: (1) place; (2) place plus subhead; (3) place plus political or other unit in parentheses, as "(state)," "(city)," "(diocese)"; (4) place plus political unit in parentheses, plus subhead; (5) place plus subhead "History," plus dates; (6) place plus subhead "History," plus name of event; (7) place plus geographic division after comma, as "Mount, Cape"; (8) geographic division preceding place name; (9) place plus

geographic division in parentheses; (10) place plus geographic division in parentheses plus subhead.

In the arrangement of these forms in the catalog, each form may have its separate alphabet. Under a given initial subject word we find an alphabet for the dash, another for the comma, another for the parentheses (perhaps), and still another for the "ands" and phrases. There may even be more, inspired by local idiosyncrasy.

Given a catalog with which one is not intimately familiar, no one can anticipate how many alphabets it may be wise to struggle through before giving up the search. And the same holds for place names. Have we not, then, too many forms, too many alphabets, too much uncertainty? Can we not reduce the forms, reduce the alphabets, and substitute clarity for vagueness and certainty for doubt? Granted such a possibility, who among us will deny its desirability?

In our early days the voices raised in favor of the noun approach were far too readily silenced. This was understandable enough, since we were out to popularize our catalogs and the adjective was the path of least resistance. For the purpose of learning through experience, we probably have had to pass through this phase before we could look at the noun approach cold-bloodedly enough to appreciate its invariable basic value.

Yet, even in this veritable era of the adjective, we have been unable to lean on its *invariable* use. We introduced the subhead (with its clarity); we introduced the composite heading (with its vagueness); we introduced the inverted heading (but filed it in a stray alphabet of its own). We now have so many possibilities, even within a single specific subject, that we do not know where to look. And most of us still cry for more adjectives.

Yet the more strictly we follow the exact meaning of words in choosing them for our headings, the more exact will the service rendered by the headings be. This is axiomatic. But we have kept running away from this concept out of mistaken kindness; we seem almost to have lost any appreciation of its worth in our efforts to exalt the popular, changeable term. The charge that many headings, in particular composite and phrase headings, are catch-alls for the cataloger's ease has too much truth in it for our comfort. In returning, as we should, to a criterion of "exactness first," nothing, the writer believes, will be of such immediate and steady assistance as the adoption of the noun approach only.

It is the fact that in all the types of headings now in use, however couched, the noun identifies the subject, with the single exception that when approach is by adjective or qualifying noun, as in (4), the primary noun, the direct subject noun, may be obscured—as the subject "Nations," is obscured in the heading "International relations."

Our commercial friends have been wiser than we librarians. Certain of their guides, notably Thomas' *Register of Manufactures*, have laid hold unerringly upon this condition and have constructed their tools accordingly, cautioning all users to look for the noun only. And their tools continue to sell.

Let us examine the working of this principle as applied to headings. It might be expressed in the rule: "All headings begin with the noun indicating the direct subject." This removes from our list all approaches by adjective or qualifying noun, turning such as are required into *see* references. To use such references at all would be a concession to transition, since this rule itself makes them superfluous. At present, wherever

the popular, the current, the habitual, approach to a subject is adjectival, from two to an indeterminate number of possibilities exist in most catalogs. Given our rule, applied, only one possibility exists.

It cannot be stressed too much that systematic use of the adjectival phrase may scatter aspects of a given subject to the four winds or, literally, to the twenty-six letters, while restriction to the noun-plus-subhead keeps an entire subject segregated and intact. At present we have columns of headings in which "School" is used as an adjective, then "Schools" with numerous subheads, and then about two dozen types of schools beginning with as many different adjectives. Who is to know, offhand, that "Attendance" is to be found under "School," "Accounting" under "Schools," and "Art" under "Art" but not under "Schools" at all? Our persistent use of both methods for a given subject (no matter how we differentiate the types of aspect) removes logic from the makeup, and ease from the use, of all our catalogs.

Now imagine knowing in advance that you go to your direct noun first without any question whatever; and that, going automatically to "Schools," you find in subhead position a single alphabet of all aspects—

Schools—Accounting
Schools—Art
Schools—Attendance
Schools—Centralization
Schools—Commercial

—with no long list of *see also* references and no further, usually incomplete, list of references from inversions.

Conceive also the simplicity of establishing a heading for a new aspect. No agonized surmises as to what the Library of Congress will do with it; no holdups

of material; no temporary assignments to be changed later. Our choice, still arbitrary in the broad sense, now follows a consistent, indeed a uniform, pattern.

Again, it should not for a moment be thought that this breakdown of a subject by the use of its subheads only works against the "specific" service we have from the start (and no doubt rightly) sought to give. "Schools—Commercial" is precisely as specific as "Commercial schools," and, with our direct-noun key in mind, just as immediately findable. The segregation value, when it obtains, is an added, not an alternative, service.

TYPES OF HEADINGS PROPOSED

Good headings are (or should be): (1) arbitrary terms, (2) definite as to coverage, and (3) specific via the subhead. A good list is neither a directory nor a phrasebook. Its intention is to lead the eye as directly as possible to the salient words indicating subjects and their interrelation, using the same method of approach to all subjects and having under each subject a single alphabet of breakdowns, aspects, and juxtaposed subjects. The following are proposed:

A. For subjects other than place or personal names: (1) noun (direct subject); (2) noun (direct subject) plus subhead after dash; plus further subheads after dash if required for breakdown;⁵ (3) noun (direct subject) plus qualifying word in parentheses; (4) noun (direct subject) plus qualifying word in parentheses plus subhead after dash; plus further subheads after dash if required; (5) noun (direct subject) plus subhead with preposition in parentheses inserted after the dash (to avoid erroneous or

indefinite impression); (6) noun (direct subject) plus subhead with qualifying phrase in parentheses inserted after the dash (to clarify distinct subjects brought into juxtaposition).

B. For names of events, including wars: name of event invariably—with *see also* to history plus dates, as desired.

C. For place names: (1) place; (2) place plus subhead; (3) place plus political unit in parentheses; (4) place plus political unit in parentheses plus subhead; (5) place plus subhead "History," plus dates; (6) place plus geographic division in parentheses; (7) place plus geographic division in parentheses plus subhead.

To the instinctive objection by many that breakdown by subhead alone will not be adequate, the writer can only submit that it has been found to be so in a list covering, now, some seven thousand headings with a variety of content fairly analogous to a general list, whose principles have served equitably and comfortably for seventeen years at the Newark Business Branch and in the transference of its headings to the main library catalog as required.

While it is customary to refer to commercial or business service in public libraries as a type of specialization, the material required by a business branch (even more than by a division in the main building) reaches frequently into general subjects. The Newark list covers many industries, trades, and businesses, together with subjects expressing function, as "Salesmanship"; others supplying sidelines of data, such as those needed in advertising; and subjects contributory to business, as "Statistics," "Costs," and so on. Most of the questions concerning breakdown that occur in the construction of a general list apply to it. Each heading was selected, de-

⁵ Subheads include noun plus inverted adjective and noun plus inverted qualifying noun, the dash being substituted for the comma to insure one alphabet.

fined, delimited, and co-ordinated in the whole, to meet known reference needs, in the mind of Linda H. Morley, who was then in charge of the branch and giving in person topnotch service to it. Her list, prepared for *2400 Business Books* and its supplement and taken over for the branch catalog, has the integrity and consistency of a one-man job whose maker's ability is too well known to require comment. Her breakdown was entirely by subhead.

It has been rightly said of our general lists that they give little help to the specialist. Therefore, a list which can compass the general and insert without friction, wherever possible, provision for the special seems to be the desideratum which we are all seeking. The needs of a specialist who approaches a general catalog may be expressed as (1) ability to reach all material on his subject in a segregated group and (2) ability to consult this material in full breakdown. It would seem that the general catalog should aim at least to supply his first necessity wholly in spreading before him all it has on his primary subject and to include as much of his second necessity—breakdown indication—as the library's policy of analysis permits. Further subdivision for the nonce we may have to leave to the special librarian; yet, if desired, it is easily open to us. We can, I think, achieve this service merely by following our two already advocated procedures: (1) to break down by formal subhead only and (2) to enter under both "keys" with appropriate subheads, when two key headings (headings having, or fitted to have, subheads) meet in a subject term, never permitting the substitution of a *see* reference for either.

A second objection to the noun approach—that too much material will congregate under given nouns—is bound

up with our present concept of the desirability and expectation of finding our material under adjective and in a small compass. This is merely a habit of mind which can be changed. The mind can be trained to seize on the salient subject noun as one crosses to the catalog, expecting to find all its modifications in a single alphabet of subheads; and eye and hand will quickly learn to leap from guide to guide instead of from card to card, as we now automatically adjust our approach to the Webster or the Oxford dictionary. It is a matter of orientation. Once used to it, one has a strong staff to lean upon. "Chemical affinity" will become automatically "Chemistry—Affinity." "Iron trade" will become "Iron—Trade." "Iron age" will become "Age—Iron." And even "Intercultural relations" (a compound adjective hitched to an indeterminate noun) will right itself into "Cultures—Interrelation," unless we agree that "Race" is better than "Culture" for our purpose.

It will be noticed that the proposed rules permit no composite headings and no running headings, except where the name of an event takes a running form. The conjunction "and" rightly should become anathema in headings. Wherever it now appears, it either kills the possibility of definite indication, hitches on a useless appendage, or presents, as Alex Ladenson has put it recently, no real subject area.

While a preposition in a running heading may lead to vagueness, certain current running headings do make good sense. The intention here is to eliminate the running form by recasting it in subhead form after Morley, who found that a preposition in parentheses (to signify "disregard in filing") modifying a subhead was needed for clarity, as in "Salesmanship—(to) Children." Pro-

vision for it seems of distinct value in a general list. Also the prepositional phrase invented by Morley to indicate type of reader, rather than content matter, for certain items, as "Accounting (for the executive)," filed at the Business Branch arbitrarily before "Accounting" (for its local reference importance and to draw attention to its unusual intention), could well be modified to file in the single-subhead alphabet of a general list as "Accounting—(for the) Executive." In other words, where needed to modify a subhead, a preposition or prepositional phrase may be inserted in parentheses and disregarded in filing—except, of course, to keep itself intact.

Consonant with this disposition of the preposition, the eliminated composite, or "and," heading may be replaced in subhead form by any requisite brief phrase in parentheses (signifying "disregard in filing") that will tie up lucidly the two key nouns, as "Education—(relation to) Democracy"; "Art—(relation to) Morals"; "Railroads—(regulation by) Government"; "Church—(relations with) State."

One particularly bad employment of the "adjective plus direct noun" appears in the present language and literature groups. No less than when it occurs in classification does sharp cleavage between headings for the language and for the literature of a country cause trouble to cataloger and reader. The reason we have no heading for "English" in its present frequent coverage of both language and literature (other than by a third grouping under "Philology," which seems still further to complicate our differentiation troubles) may be laid at the door of our persistent use of the word, and of its sister-words, as adjectives. A shift to the substantive meaning would fill the need for a comprehensive term, enable us to apply our direct-noun

approach here also, shorten headings, and give all material in one, instead of several, groups. This would mean that subheads now in use for both language and literature, together with all direct nouns now following the adjective, would be thrown into a single secondary alphabet, thus:

English
English—Abbreviations
English—Ballads
English—Business
English—Drama
English—Essays
English—Fiction
English—Grammar
English—Study

—with further subheads as required. This would also apply to tribal names of American Indians.

Again, beyond everything, we need exactness in our terms, as the astute among us have declared. For a work on the interaction of the dawning peace and another subject, we would not continue to assign two vague headings as "World war, 1939-45—Peace" and, say, "Democracy." The phrase in parentheses would open the door to such clear exactitude as:

World war, 1939-45—Peace—(affected by)
Democracy
World war, 1939-45—Peace—(effect on) De-
mocracy
World war, 1939-45—Peace—(affected by)
Education
World war, 1939-45—Peace—(effect on) Edu-
cation
World war, 1939-45—Peace—(affected by)
Religion
World war, 1939-45—Peace—(effect on) Re-
ligion

and our rule for double entry for a conjunction or juxtaposition of key headings would add:

Democracy—(affected by) World war, 1939-45
—Peace
Democracy—(effect on) World war, 1939-45—
Peace

and so on.

This would be of great assistance in establishing a heading instanter for a brand-new subject. Since the phrase in parentheses is disregarded in filing (except, of course, for the secondary observance of keeping cards on an identical subject together), it would be of no practical moment whatever if the phrasing within the parentheses varied from that employed in sister-libraries, for example, if "influence" or "result" were used instead of "effect." Any one of them would answer equally the purpose of anyone approaching the catalog, for the latter invariably would come holding nothing in mind but the key nouns.

The proposed rule for names of events forces all entries for events under the best-known (generally the only) phrase and forbids its use as a subhead. This phrase may be subjected to breakdown as for noun, though such a breakdown is seldom required.

The proposed rules for place follow current practice in the latter's points 1-6 and reject current practice in the latter's points listed as 6, 7, and 8, in the following respects: (1) Names of events are not to be used as subheads. As desired, they may also be connected with country, subhead "History," plus dates, by *see also* reference from name of event. (2) Geographic division will not be indicated, capitalized, after place name preceded by comma. (3) Geographic division will not precede place name as heading. Thus differentiation in the treatment of geographic divisions to indicate common verbal usage, as "Cape Ann," "Vesuvius (mount)," will be eliminated by the consistent use of parentheses and lower case, even for "Virginia (city)," in the interest of having a single alphabetic line with no filing complications. The only apparent exception (not a real one) is the case in which the word signifying geo-

graphic division is not used in its inherent sense, as in "Cape Colony."

Some examples of apparent hurdles in heading shift may be given. Our use of "Natural history" defines it as the consideration of nature in general, which may or may not be presented in the form of history. The long-accepted phrase is bad for its purpose, whereas the area it covers is succinctly expressed in the subject "Nature." "Natural" itself is not too clear, since it may mean "habitual"; and "history" may be a misnomer for any title to which it is applied. The teachers who caused us to establish "Nature study" were clear thinkers, yet in so doing we added to our muddle. We should retain for them "Nature-Study" and recast all "Natural" and "Nature" headings into a single alphabet of subheads under "Nature."

Similarly, in the term "International relations" we are talking about nations, their interrelation, and the heading becomes "Nations—Interrelations." In "International law," two key headings meet. To give specialists in both their leads, we need both "Nations—Law," and "Law—International."

CHANGING THE CATALOG

Change in any catalog could be made by degrees. Since we are already using nouns with subhead and inverted headings, as well as adjectival compounds and phrases, we can start using the first only (noun with subhead) for all new subjects without preliminary warning.

Then we can go back and change old subjects, block by block, heading by heading, as we get down to them. It would not be so bad as reclassification!

That we should disregard what will seem at first to be "odd" in the substitution of noun for adjective *as long as the sense is plain* will be a needed advance

warning, or we will inhibit ourselves from acclimatization.

As an example of change, take the small subject group, "Libraries." Under the "Libra—" approach we now have 148 lines, spread under three key words, in six alphabets ("Librarians," "Libraries" plus subhead, "Libraries" plus inversions, "Libraries and—," "Libraries for—") "Library—"). Of these 148 lines, 68 indicate active headings and 80 are *see* references to "Library" as qualifying noun or to adjectival phrases scattered throughout the list. Blanket references are made to special classes of libraries and to names of cities with subhead "Libraries."

Recasting under the suggested rules we get:

- Libraries—Access to books
- Accession dept.
- Accounting
- Administration
- Advertising (of)
- Agricultural
- Anecdotes
- Architecture
- Arrangement of books. *See* Libraries—Shelf dept.
- Art
- Associations
- Bibliography
- (for the) Blind
- Bookkeeping. *See* Libraries—Accounting
- Botanical
- Branches
- Buildings. *See* Libraries—Architecture
- Bulletins
- Business
- Camp. *See* Libraries—War
- Cataloging
- Catalogs
- Centralization
- Charging systems
- Chemical
- Chicago
- Children's
- Church
- Circulation

- Classification (books)
- Classification (personnel)
- College. *See* Libraries—University
- Commercial
- Commissions
- Conferences
- County
- Dental
- Depository
- Duplicates
- Economy. *See* Libraries—Science (of)
- Engineering
- Ethics
- Exhibits
- Extension
- Fiction
- Finance
- Fittings
- (service to) Foreigners
- Gifts
- Governmental
- Handwriting
- Heating
- Historical
- History
- History—Ancient
- History—Medieval
- History—Renaissance
- History—17th—18th centuries
- Hospital
- Humor. *See* Libraries—Anecdotes
- Imaginary
- Institution
- Insurance
- Insurance (of)
- Junior college. *See* Libraries—University
- Law
- Law (of)
- Legislation. *See* Libraries—Law (of)
- Librarians
- Librarians—Interchange of
- Librarians—Negro
- Library day
- Lighting
- Loans—Interlibrary
- Medical
- Military
- Monastic
- Moving
- Municipal reference
- Musical

- National
- New York
- Newspaper
- Newspaper office
- Order dept.
- Organization
- Package
- Parish
- Pedagogical
- Pensions
- Personnel. *See Libraries—Librarians*
- Picture
- Post
- Postal
- Prison
- Private
- Proprietary
- Railroad Y.M.C.A.
- (relations with) Readers
- Reference books
- Reference dept.
- Reformatory
- Rental
- Rules
- Salaries
- School
- (relations with) School
- Science (of)
- Science (of)—Schools
- Scientific
- Shelf dept.
- Shelving
- Societies. *See Libraries—Associations*
- Soldiers. *See Libraries—War*
- Special
- Stamps
- (relations with) State
- State aid
- Stations
- Statistics
- Subscription
- Sunday opening
- Sunday school
- Supplies
- Technical
- Terminology. *See Libraries—Dictionaries*
- Thefts (book)
- Theological
- Traveling
- Trustees
- University
- Ventilation

- War
- Working men's
- Y.M.C.A.

Thus, in place of the original conglomerate, achieving 68 active headings in 148 lines, we now have 122 active headings and 13 *see* references confined to synonymous subheads.

Since in this arrangement no use is made of the initial word "Library," approaches will channel, perforce, to the plural "Libraries"; hence no references from "Library" to "Libraries" are needed.

In beginning to reconstruct our list along the suggested lines, we will assume the classifier's mind and work from the broad inclusive heading to the farthest required breakdown.

GENERAL RULES

1. Be specific, but via the subhead, not the adjective.
2. Be definitive. Vague and ambiguous headings should be either eliminated, delimited by clear definition, or replaced by two or more concrete headings (as for the "ands").
3. Inverted titles are not to be used as substitutes for headings. At present this is officially permitted for a new idea whose area is not yet sufficiently delimitable to permit of establishing a heading. Instead, use a tentative, temporary heading, indexing it in pencil without references, writing it in pencil on catalog cards.
4. Subject takes precedence of place invariably. Where subject subheads under place are desired, as for local needs, make the reverse entry also.

PROCEDURE UNDER A SUBJECT

1. Take a broad subject such as that indicated by the heading "Education," together with its subheads.

2. From its *see also* references take all containing the word "education" and invert to subhead form, thus:

Agricultural education *to* Education—Agriculture (but indicate, also, Agriculture—Education)
 Coeducation *to* Education—Coeducation
 Education of adults *to* Education—Adult
 Drama in education *to* Education—(through)
 Drama (but indicate, also, Drama—(in)
 Education
 Education and state *to* Education—(relations
 with) State
 Monitorial system of education *to* Education—
 Monitorial
 Montessori method of education *to* Education—
 Montessori
 Self-government in education *to* Education—
 Self-government
 Overpressure in education *to* Education—Over-
 pressure
 Jesuits—Education *to* Education—(of) Jesuits
 (but indicate, also, Jesuits—Education)
 Feeble-minded—Education *to* Education—
 —Feeble-minded (but indicate, also, Feeble-
 minded—Education)

and interalphabetize with original subheads. Dig out the actual references now indicated only in blanket form (as "under names of," etc.) and do the same. Blanket references should be eliminated.

3. Examine the remaining *see also*'s critically, to ascertain which should be retained because needed as key headings. Delimit and define such unless clear. Bend backward to keep their number down.

4. Distribute the remaining *see also*'s as subheads under "Education" or under another retained key heading. *See also* references under "Education" will now be reduced to a few key headings—perhaps only to "Schools" and "Teaching." (At present there are seventy-five or more.)

5. Apply the four preceding pro-
 cedures to the *see also* references under
 subheads of "Education."

6. Take each of the retained key head-
 ings and apply the above procedures to
 each and to its subheads.

7. Take all subsequent headings be-
 ginning with the word "Education" and
 change to subhead form.

8. Take all subsequent headings be-
 ginning with the word "Educational"
 and invert in subhead form, as "Edu-
 cational psychology" *to* "Psychology—
 Educational," or change to subhead of
 "Education," as "Educational surveys"
 to "Education—Surveys."

9. Check all references *to* all headings
 considered in steps 1-6, to discover sub-
 heads appropriate to add to "Education"
 or to retain as key headings, and then
 make them.

10. Examine the entire result to re-
 move synonyms and clear up ambiguity.

CONCLUSION

Of his own rule, opening wide the door to the adjective, Cutter said: "It must be confessed that this rule is somewhat vague and that it would be often of doubtful application."⁶ We have been using this rule for over seventy years, and we know no truer word was ever spoken. We have been leaning on a rule which has proved to be a reed. Cutter's objection to the opposite rule of Schwartz admitted that it (the noun rule) "was clear and easy to follow" but was objectionable because it would put subjects "under words where nobody unacquainted with the rule would expect to find them."

Now should the noun rule be adopted, it would not be done *sub rosa*. Every library-school student would assimilate it overnight. At present, according to Cutter, we are expected to be teaching

⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 71.

each new approacher to a catalog the rule of specific entry. The mere word "specific" will faze the ignorant; so why should he not be told at once to look for the "*specific noun*"—i.e., if he wants electric motors to look for "Motors" and turn over until he finds "Motors—Electric"? Is it really any harder to grasp?

Then if we follow the further rules suggested here of entry both ways when two key-noun ideas are in conjunction or when two totally different subjects are

brought into juxtaposition and if we add our occasional cross-reference from the more dominating type of the adjectival form (though the writer dreads even this concession), it will transpire that very few holes indeed remain through which to slip. And we should have an invariable rule on which to lean with the dependability of a staff. It seems as if the time had come to give John C. Schwartz and the lesser-known brethren who thought and think with him their chance to demonstrate.

THE AMERICAN LIBRARY INSTITUTE: A HISTORICAL SKETCH¹

GEORGE B. UTLEY

LIKE many another project which has grown into importance and value, the idea for an American Library Institute sprang from the fertile brain of Melvil Dewey. In 1904 he presented a proposal for "an American library league, or academy," to be composed of not to exceed one hundred men and women "most efficient in promoting public library interests."² He advocated the appointment of such a body by the council of the American Library Association, the term of office to be ten years, with membership open to the whole country.

"Such a body," said Dewey, "would meet ideally the conditions so often longed for of a smaller company for meetings and discussions no longer practical with our A.L.A. membership of a thousand and destined soon to be two or three times that number." Even his keen vision did not, perhaps, foresee, forty years later, an A.L.A. membership of nearly fifteen thousand. Dewey felt that a body, not for legislation but simply for comparison of views and discussion of vital questions, would render a service to the library cause which could not be secured in any other way.

Before the council of the A.L.A. had

¹ This sketch was written to form a chapter in a history of the American Library Association and its affiliated and associated bodies, which Frank P. Hill undertook to compile with a view to its publication by the A.L.A. When Dr. Hill died in the summer of 1941 the compilation had not been completed, and it has not been feasible thus far to continue it. The sketch is here printed as it was prepared for that projected work, with only a few short paragraphs added to bring it down to date from 1939.

² *Public Libraries*, IX (May, 1904), 238-39.

opportunity to consider Dewey's proposal, Aksel G. S. Josephson, head cataloger of the John Crerar Library, always one attentive to the scholarly side of his profession, wrote a cordial indorsement of Dewey's plan.³

At the St. Louis conference of the A.L.A. in October of that year (1904), the council authorized the appointment, by the president of the association, of a committee of five to consider the matter of a "library academy."⁴ The committee, as appointed by President Ernest C. Richardson, consisted of Melvil Dewey, Herbert Putnam, William T. Peoples, Reuben G. Thwaites, and Gratia A. Countryman. Dewey made a "report of progress" on his proposal at the meeting of the council at Atlantic City on April 1, 1905, with which, he stated, most of the members of the committee concurred. At its Portland, Oregon, conference in July, 1905, the A.L.A. voted, on recommendation of this committee, to establish an organization to be known as the "American Library Institute," this body to consist of one hundred persons chosen from English-speaking America. A committee consisting of the fifteen ex-presidents of the A.L.A. was appointed to formulate a constitution, draft by-laws, add new members, and make other arrangements for the launching of the new organization. Following the Portland conference, a considerable number of the librarians there present took a two-week

³ *Public Libraries*, IX (June, 1904), 275.

⁴ *Library Journal*, XXIX, No. 12 (December, 1904), 250.

post-conference steamer trip to Alaska, and during those restful quiet days on deck and in the smoking-room the ex-presidents aboard discussed and worked out plans later to be put into effect.

Early in 1906 the announcement was made that the American Library Institute had been organized by the adoption of constitution and by-laws and by the election of forty-four of the hundred fellows who were to comprise its membership.⁵ The basic instrument provided that the object of the Institute "shall be to provide for study and discussion of library problems by a representative body chosen from English-speaking America, regardless of residence or official position." There should be "not to exceed 100 fellows." "Recognized library thinkers and workers in other countries" might be elected corresponding members by unanimous vote of the board or three-fourths vote of the Institute. Members of the A.L.A. executive board and council for each current year should have seats in all meetings of the Institute. Programs, time and place of meetings, and other routine business were intrusted to a board of five, one elected each year to serve five years. The officers were a president and a secretary-treasurer. The board should call at least two meetings annually. Dues were fixed in the by-laws at one dollar for each year of the elected term. The first Institute board elected consisted of Melvil Dewey, president; Henry J. Carr, secretary-treasurer; and James H. Canfield, Frederick M. Crunden, John C. Dana, and Frank P. Hill.

⁵ *Library Journal*, XXXI (February, 1906), 71; *Public Libraries*, XI (March, 1906), 108. The *Library Journal* announcement included the list of members and the text of the constitution and by-laws. The list of members was also printed in the July issue of *Public Libraries*, together with a supplementary list.

Shortly afterward seven more persons were elected, and with this membership of fifty-one fellows the American Library Institute considered itself launched and a going concern.

A meeting of the Institute was called for December 10, 1907, at New York, but because of the necessary absence of Dr. James H. Canfield, chairman of the local committee, it was postponed. In sending out the call Dewey wrote that a number of "our strongest librarians" had signified their intention of being present and had expressed their belief that two days free from all routine business and outside distractions would be exceedingly profitable in considering the broader aspects and problems of librarianship. Thus, before the Institute had really got under way, it was realized that it would be difficult—in fact, practically impossible—to get adequate time at the general A.L.A. conferences for the sort of discussions and informal frank interchange of ideas which the founders had in mind as the main justification of the organization. Consequently, plans were made to hold meetings independent of other library-conference distractions; but these plans have been only moderately successful, since it has always been difficult for any considerable number of the members to attend a meeting unless the trip were combined with other official duties. The fact remains, however, that those few meetings which the Institute has been able to hold free of competition from other programs have, notwithstanding smaller attendance, been among the most fruitful of good results.

The first meeting of the Institute was held at Atlantic City on Thursday evening, March 12, 1908. A second session was held the following day. Dr. Dewey, its president, was unable to attend.

Eighteen members were present.⁶ Discussion centered around the selection of books and the advisability of rejection of the less-called-for titles except by the larger "storehouse" libraries. The members also discussed the question of the establishment of permanent depositories of federal government documents to insure completeness of collections and efficient administration of them.⁷ The next meeting was held in New York on December 10, 1908. With twenty-eight of the then sixty-two members present, the time was mostly spent in considering the future position of and necessity for the Institute, if the new constitution of the A.L.A., which was then being framed, was adopted, making the council a deliberative body. The opinion generally expressed was that if, as adopted, the council had functions similar to those proposed for the Institute, the latter could appropriately merge with such a body and pass out of existence as an independent organization.

At its Bretton Woods conference, June 28-July 3, 1909, the A.L.A. adopted the new constitution on which a special committee had been working for some months. One of its provisions was to the effect that "the Council may consider and discuss library questions of public and professional interest." This was so closely the avowed purpose of the Institute that the usefulness and justification of that organization was for several subsequent years freely and frankly questioned. The A.L.A. was in the meantime growing, and its council was getting larger, by the inclusion in its ranks of representatives of state library associations and, later, chairmen of A.L.A. standing committees. Increase in size

lessened the frankness and ease of informal discussion; and the Institute, which had never actually reached the point of taking a vote on merging with the council or on disbanding, gradually found its existence and functions again more generally warranted and justifiable.

During this debated period of possibly unjustified existence, an editorial in the *Library Journal*, written doubtless by Mr. Bowker, of revered memory, expressed well the general opinion of librarians, both within and without the Institute:

There is a continued division of opinion with regard to the Institute, the attitude of disfavor even being represented within its own ranks. A continuation of the Mackinac standard of Institute programs would tend to render its permanency more generally acceptable, at the same time it still seems open to question as to whether the Institute makes for a strengthening or lessening of the bonds of interest within the American Library Association.⁸

In 1926 the same periodical carried an editorial on the outlook for the Institute as it became of age—twenty-one years old. It referred to the query, often expressed in the early days, whether the A.L.A. council and the Institute did not more or less duplicate each other. The editorial went on to say:

As far as the A.L.A. is concerned, that has now developed into so vast an organization with its eight thousand membership, its permanent headquarters and its large and effective office staff and the Council has had so many decisions of administrative importance to make, that the Institute now occupies a field which has practically been left to it by the Association.⁹

Mary Eileen Ahern voiced the widely held view when she wrote in her survey of the first twenty-five years of the Institute:

In the opinion now of an increasing number of those in the library circle, there is place for

⁶ The list of those present was printed in *Public Libraries*, XIII (April, 1908), 135.

⁷ *Library Journal*, XXXIII (April, 1908), 147-51.

⁸ *Library Journal*, XXXV (July, 1910), 294.

⁹ *Library Journal*, LI (July, 1926), 615.

the original idea of the American Library Institute—a reflective body for discussing, clarifying, and formulating opinions, leaving action involving responsibility to the A.L.A. and its organizations, and committing the Institute as a body to neither support nor opposition of any purpose or movement that is not a part of its own concerns.¹⁰

The fields of research, publication, teaching, and co-operation were always uppermost topics at the early meetings, as Miss Ahern pointed out.

One concrete way of differentiating the Institute from other library associations was laid down by Ernest C. Richardson when he was president:

Most library associations emphasize the educational aspects, the spreading of common knowledge. The A.L.I. simply emphasizes the study or research side. It is, however, not therefore an antiquarian or scholastic body; it is an intensely practical organization. It aims to encourage actual research of a live character, but it is, above all, directed on library methods of aiding scientific research.¹¹

That Dr. Richardson here struck the keynote of nearly all Institute programs from 1918 to the present time is apparent to one who looks over the agenda of its meetings and notes the practical, rather than the "antiquarian" or historical, aspect of the topics discussed.

Melvil Dewey, out of active library work and busy with the development of his Lake Placid Club, retired from the presidency of the Institute at the end of 1908 and was succeeded by Arthur E. Bostwick. The subjects considered at the Mackinac conference of 1910, so cordially commended by the editorial in *Library Journal*, above quoted, were official relations between the library and the municipality or state, interlibrary loan policies, the undignified character of some library publicity, and the mis-

direction of much library effort in reference work.

Frank P. Hill succeeded Dr. Bostwick in 1912, and during his administration the Institute members at several meetings discussed with much seriousness various aspects of the cost of library administration. The results of these deliberations were evident in the scientific and statistical studies later conducted by A.L.A. committees on administration and in the investigations made by individual librarians and boards of trustees. Another subject considered during Dr. Hill's term was the need of specialization in library work. W. Dawson Johnston led this discussion on a phase of library practice then in its infancy compared with the administrative machinery operating in our large libraries a third of a century later. Appraising the value of a book collection, book storage, physical efficiency for library work, and the limits of co-operation were other topics discussed at that period.

Ernest C. Richardson during his presidency, 1916-18, took up and carried on the study of library specialization, advocating a policy of co-ordination between libraries. He was among the first to sound the warning note that it was unwise for libraries to attempt to cover too wide a field, because, as an editorial in the *Library Journal* expressed it, "Most of the great schemes have failed because they were so big and so ideal as to be discouraging for the present, and thus many have been left for revival in the library millennium."¹² Dr. Richardson's plan proposed that "the important libraries which have or may develop specialties in collection, in bibliography, or in administration, shall come into such consultation and co-ordination with each other as to make an

¹⁰ *Libraries*, XXXVI (July, 1931), 313.

¹¹ *Library Journal*, XLIII (May, 1918), 382.

¹² *Library Journal*, XLI (March, 1916), 161.

integral system, which will avoid the waste of duplication and put the riches of each at the service of all." He set forth his plan at a meeting of the Institute at Atlantic City, March 4, 1916, his general theme being that certain libraries should definitely adopt certain specialties and engage to undertake one or all of various specified enterprises. This seemed a practical working plan for the Institute to encourage, and for several years attempts in its program, more or less successful, were made to push it forward. In more recent years the plan has been revived in various cities and sections of the country, as limitations in book funds and in space on library shelves have made it apparent that no one library can in itself completely cover the field of knowledge or completely meet the expanding needs of scholarship.

William N. C. Carlton, who held the presidency for the next three years, 1919-21, emphasized certain aspects of the research problem in his presidential address at the Atlantic City meeting, May 8, 1919;¹³ and a paper two years later by C. C. Williamson on "Personnel Specifications for Library Work"¹⁴ had repercussions in various state associations and library clubs in the consideration of this important matter.

The American Library Institute has printed and published, from time to time, several volumes of its papers and proceedings and other matters relating to the organization. The first publication was the *Papers and Subjects for Discussion at the Meeting in New York City, September 27, 28, 1911*. The papers and

proceedings from 1913 to 1921, both dates inclusive, have been printed. In addition, a few miscellaneous papers, the constitution and by-laws, and a handbook (1938) have also seen the light of print. The 1938 *Handbook* gives the names of officers and fellows; the constitution (adopted 1934) and by-laws now in force; a short historical sketch, prepared by Secretary Herbert O. Brigham; a list of past officers and executive-committee members; a list of past fellows; a list of meetings held; and a list of Institute publications. Dr. Richardson personally bore the expense of printing the papers and proceedings over the nine-year period above reported. For several years (1932-37) Henry O. Severance annually compiled a list of the contributions in print of fellows of the Institute. These bibliographical notes were printed from year to year in the *Library Journal*.

In 1924, under the presidency of Clement W. Andrews, the Institute inaugurated a practice of meeting at Dr. Dewey's Lake Placid Club, and in those restful environs several of its most enjoyable and perhaps most purposeful programs were conducted. At the meeting there on June 25-26, 1926, Dr. Bostwick, president for a second three-year term, gave a paper: "Wanted, a Napoleon," pointing out that library science, like military science, needs greater leaders than those trained only in tactics; that strategists like Napoleon are born, not made, and rise above and are independent of the formal schools of tactics. In the discussion that followed, Dr. Richardson remarked, "I have forgotten what happened to Napoleon after his military business. Did he retire to Placid?" To which Dr. Bostwick made quick reply that at least our only library Napoleon had done so!

¹³ American Library Institute, *Papers and Proceedings* (1919), pp. 1-7; *Library Journal*, XLIV (April, 1919), 203-6.

¹⁴ American Library Institute, *Papers and Proceedings* (1921), pp. 42-48.

At this meeting the question of future work and organization was again raised, and, on motion of Dr. Hill, it was voted that the Institute should proceed on its present policy and without change in organization.

In 1927 we find the Institute back at Atlantic City, holding an open meeting, as many of its previous ones there had been, presided over by Harry L. Koopman, in the absence of President Bostwick. John Cotton Dana read a paper on "Changes in Library Methods in a Changing World"; H. H. B. Meyer discussed the need of a current index to library literature; William Stetson Merrill presented a paper on "Newspaper Depositories"; and Dr. Richardson stressed further the need of research books. For years the Institute had striven to drive home to librarians a realization of the poverty of American libraries in material for research, and the efforts since made to correct the situation largely resulted, we believe, from these campaigns.

The question of a graduate library school, if not discussed first by the Institute, was certainly considered by that body early in the history of the movement. At the Atlantic City meeting on February 15, 1918, a paper was presented by Amy Reed, of Vassar College, on the subject.¹⁵ It was discussed by Frederick C. Hicks, Walter Lichtenstein, Henry B. Van Hoesen, and others. Dr. Lichtenstein later extended his Institute remarks in a paper for the *Library Journal*.¹⁶ From time to time the desirability of such a school was discussed at Institute meetings, and it is clear that that organization played an important part in crystallizing the views of

many librarians and in helping to forward the movement that finally produced tangible and visible results.

Perhaps surfeited for the time being with administrative problems and policies, the Institute turned with gusto to bookish matters at its meeting at West Baden, Indiana, in May, 1928, and under the presidency of Harry Lyman Koopman carried out an exceptionally interesting program, treating the two chief elements with which librarians deal—books and readers. Dr. Koopman opened with a paper on "Reading—The Unsociable Art";¹⁷ James T. Gerould and Frank K. Walter discussed library resources and certain problems connected with special collections and the safeguarding of rare and expensive books;¹⁸ and a paper was read on library resources of Mexico, by Señor Mendez Rivas, of Mexico City.¹⁹

This paper contributed by the scholarly Mexican librarian was not the first contribution to an Institute program by a colleague from beyond our own borders. L. Stanley Jast, of London, was a guest at the Kaaterskill meeting in June, 1913; and Paul Otlet, of Brussels, was present at the New York City meeting in December of that year. It remained, however, for the international conference of the A.L.A. in October, 1933, at Chicago, to provide the most distinguished group of European and Asiatic library visitors to which the Institute has thus far had the privilege of playing the host. Thanks to the corraling energy of President Theodore W. Koch, a brilliant galaxy of our foreign friends at-

¹⁵ *American Library Institute, Papers and Proceedings* (1918), pp. 8-10.

¹⁶ *Library Journal*, LIII (September 15, 1928), 733-38.

¹⁷ *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXII (September, 1928), 292-95.

¹⁸ *American Library Institute, Papers and Proceedings* (1918), pp. 8-10.

¹⁹ *XLIII* (April, 1918), 233-35.

tended the meeting held at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, on the afternoon of October 20. Among those who participated in the program were Dr. T. P. Sevensma, of the League of Nations Library; Dr. Isak Collijn, of the Royal Library, Stockholm; Professor Rinshiro Ishikawa, of Tokyo; Dr. Marcel Godet, of the National Library, Berne; and Dr. Arundell Eadsdale, of the British Museum. A dinner meeting was held that evening, and brief addresses were made by a number of the overseas delegates.

It was during Koch's presidency and largely due to his initiative as a liaison officer that the Carnegie Corporation made a grant of \$5,000 to the Institute. In 1934 the constitution was revised, and among the new provisions was one for a research board of fifteen fellows, to be selected by the executive committee. Certain members of the Institute felt that the organization could appropriately and profitably to the library cause undertake and carry out definite pieces of bibliographical research. The grant from the Carnegie Corporation was made to enable the research board to study various submitted or suggested subjects and to start work on one or more of them. The first meeting of the board was held at Atlantic City, March 15-16, 1935, and the two-day conference and several subsequent meetings were devoted to the consideration of bibliographical and other projects. The administration of Henry B. Van Hoesen, president from 1934 to 1936, was especially marked by the serious efforts of a number of the fellows to engage the Institute in the promulgation of various worthy bibliographical enterprises. Many were discussed, but none was chosen. All projects considered either were found to have been pre-empted by some other agency or were not deemed

desirable or practicable for the Institute to undertake or sponsor. There is, furthermore, the conviction on the part of many members of the organization that the Institute should remain a deliberative body and leave to other agencies the actual operation of enterprises.

Under the presidency of George B. Utley, 1937-39, meetings were held at Kansas City in June, 1938, and at San Francisco in June, 1939, both in connection with A.L.A. conferences; and at the mid-winter meetings in Chicago in December, 1937, 1938, and 1939. A variety of topics, believed to be timely and worthy of consideration, were discussed at these meetings with ability and a commendable degree of enthusiasm.

The last meeting to date was that held at the Harvard Faculty Club in Cambridge on June 21, 1941. Phineas L. Windsor, who was elected president in January, 1940, was prevented by illness from being present. Andrew D. Osborn presented a paper, "The Crisis in Cataloging," which was published in the *Library Quarterly*²⁰ and afterward issued in pamphlet form by the Institute. The much-discussed cost of cataloging Osborn set down as the foremost problem confronting library administrators. "The catalog department of any size," said Osborn, "will have to be streamlined in the future." He expressed the opinion that standard cataloging would be less detailed in many respects than the 1908 code or the Library of Congress formerly required. His paper met with both agreement and disagreement, and one of the liveliest discussions in the history of the Institute followed its delivery.

No meetings of the Institute have been called since this country entered the war.

Before closing this brief historical sketch it would not be inappropriate

to record the names and periods of service of the officers of the American Library Institute.

Presidents: Melvil Dewey, 1905-8; Arthur E. Bostwick, 1909-11; Frank P. Hill, 1912-15; Ernest C. Richardson, 1916-18; William N. C. Carlton, 1919-21; Clement W. Andrews, 1922-24; Arthur E. Bostwick, 1925-27; Harry L. Koopman, 1928-30; Theodore W. Koch, 1931-33; Henry B. Van Hoesen, 1934-36; George B. Utley, 1937-39; Phineas L. Windsor, 1940—.

Secretary-treasurers: Henry J. Carr, 1905-11; Mary Eileen Ahern, 1912-16; William N. C. Carlton, 1916-18; Andrew Keogh, 1919-21; Theodore W. Koch, 1922-24; Henry B. Van Hoesen, 1925-30; Frank K. Walter, 1931-33; Herbert O. Brigham, 1934-39; Charles F. McCombs, 1940—.

The organization has, as every member of it would doubtless confess, fallen far short of the ambitious aims of its dynamic founder. There have been serious debates at times as to whether it was wise and warrantable to continue its existence. But, notwithstanding its

shortcomings, its duplication of effort at times with other library bodies, and its occasional dormancy, the American Library Institute has served with a fair degree of capability the library cause. Many policies initiated there have been taken up and carried to fruition by other organizations or individuals. Some of its programs have been memorable in American library history. Many of the papers presented to it hold high place in our professional literature. Whether, however, an independent organization was necessary to accomplish these results is perhaps debatable. Would it be treason to the organization in which for a time he held office for the writer of this survey to express personally the opinion that equally valuable conclusions could have been reached if this discussion group had functioned these thirty-odd years officially, as well as to all intents and purposes, under the aegis of the parent-organization—the American Library Association?

THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

E. HEYSE DUMMER holds degrees from Wisconsin, Northwestern, and Chicago. He did postgraduate work at the universities of Berlin and Munich, taught at Syracuse University, and at present heads the division of languages and literature at Elmhurst College. He has contributed numerous articles to professional journals and has done various translations for the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago in the field of bibliographical history.

RICHARD HEATHCOTE HEINDEL was born at Hanover, Pennsylvania, August 24, 1912. He was educated at Harvard (A.B., 1933) and at the University of Pennsylvania (A.M. and Ph.D., 1938). He studied abroad as a Social Science Research Council fellow during 1936-37 and was Penfield Fellow in International Law, Diplomacy, and Belles Lettres during 1937-38. Mr. Heindel has taught modern European history at the University of Pennsylvania, with the rank of assistant (1934-36), instructor (1938-40), and assistant professor (1941-46). He acted as director of the War Documentation Service from 1939 to 1942, and during those years served on various committees of the American Council of Learned Societies, the Social Science Research Council, and the National Resources Planning Board. From 1942 to July, 1945, he was director of the American Library in the American Embassy, London; from July to December, 1945, special assistant in the Office of International Information and Cultural Affairs, Department of State; and, since January 1, 1946, acting chief of the Division of Libraries and Institutes in the Department of State. Mr. Heindel is the author of *American Impact on Great Britain* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1940) and of a number of reports and

articles on international relations, research, and public affairs. He has in preparation a two-volume general survey of American influence abroad.

MARIE LOUISE PREVOST is a native of New York City. She was librarian of the privately supported public library at Elizabeth, New Jersey, seeing it through its campaign for public support, and was assistant librarian of the Free Public Library in Elizabeth from 1910 to 1917. Since 1917 she has been in charge of the catalog department of the Newark Public Library. Miss Prevost is a frequent contributor to professional periodicals. She has served as president and as secretary of the New Jersey Library Association and is chairman of the Committee on a Quarterly Review of the A.L.A. Division of Cataloging and Classification.

SIDNEY BUTLER SMITH was born July 28, 1913, in Boston, Massachusetts. He received the A.B. degree from Williams College in 1934 and the B.L.S. from the Columbia University School of Library Service in 1936. He is at present studying for his doctorate at the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago. Mr. Smith was employed at the George Washington University Library, Washington, D.C., 1934-35 and 1936-37, and at Bard College, Annandale-on-Hudson, N.Y., in 1939. From 1940 to 1944 he was reference librarian, dormitory resident, and faculty adviser to dramatics at Union College, Schenectady, N.Y.

GEORGE B. UTLEY: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, XII (July, 1942), 768. Since September, 1942, Mr. Utley has been librarian emeritus of the Newberry Library.

THE COVER DESIGN

JOHANNES VELDENER came originally from the diocese of Würzburg. On July 30, 1473, he registered with the faculty of medicine of the University of Louvain. As he described himself in his first book as a "master of the art of printing," we may assume that the university recognized him as an official printer. In 1474 he issued Jacobus de Theramo's *Consolatio peccatorum*, which was evidently the first book printed in Louvain.

Veldener remained in Louvain until 1477. He printed there twelve books, all in Latin—works of theology, law, and grammar and editions of the classics, such as would be needed by students of the university.

Another printer, Johannes de Westphalia, began printing in Louvain about the same time as did Veldener. He proved a strong and possibly unscrupulous competitor. To avoid him, Veldener migrated to Utrecht.

He set up business in Utrecht in 1478 and remained there until at least 1481. Perhaps to avoid the tumults arising from the fierce quarrel between the citizens of Utrecht and their bishop, he then migrated to Kuilenburg, a small town a few miles south of Utrecht. Here, as in Utrecht, Veldener printed books chiefly religious and in the Dutch vernacular.

In 1484 Veldener returned to Louvain,

where he printed three or four more editions. He probably died in 1485.

Veldener's books were often elaborately illustrated. Besides employing local engravers, he cut up wood blocks which had printed block-books and used their figures to illustrate his editions.

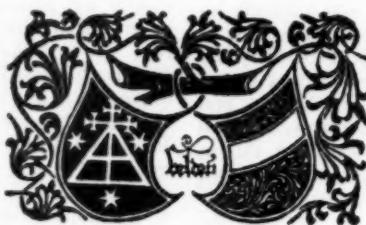
Veldener was a versatile craftsman. He was a type-designer and letter-founder; he may have cast a font of Caxton's types. Possibly, also, he was a bookbinder; the name of Veldener is signed to a contemporary binding.

Veldener's first mark consists of two shields hanging from a branch. The dexter shield bears the printer's merchant's mark—within three stars, a triangle divided by a cross, the vertical line of

which forms part of a cross crosslet. The sinister shield bears the arms of Louvain. Between the shields is engraved the printer's name—the earliest use of a printer's name as part of his mark.

The symbolism of Veldener's merchant's mark is fairly obvious. The triangle is a common symbol for the Holy Trinity. This figure is reinforced by two other symbols of the mystic Three-in-One: three stars arranged in the form of a triangle and three minor crosses joined to the larger cross of the cross crosslet.

EDWIN ELLIOTT WILLOUGHBY
FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY



REVIEWS

General Education in a Free Society: Report of the Harvard Committee. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1945. Pp. xix+267. \$2.00.

Most of the colleges in the United States took advantage of the interruptions caused in their normal routines by the war to take stock and to plot improved courses for their future efforts. This book is the report of the committee which Harvard set working on such an inquiry in the spring of 1943.

The Harvard Committee was originally instructed to look beyond problems peculiar to Harvard to examine the whole of secondary and collegiate education. The result is that the report, in the words of President Conant, "presents a view of the total American educational scene." It represents an earnest effort, that is, by a selected group of Harvard minds to look beyond Harvard Square to find out how education, a great instrument of American democracy, "can both shape the future and secure the foundations of our free society."

The report is presented in six chapters. The first gives a short account of the growth of our educational "system" and of the social forces that have been at work upon it, especially those resulting from the accelerated industrialization of the last seventy-five years. The schools come in for chief attention in this chapter, and their heterogeneity and the variety of the tasks they have to perform are stressed. It is here pointed out that American education has both a "Jeffersonian" and a "Jacksonian" function to perform, i.e., that it has to provide adequate opportunity for gifted students and at the same time strive to raise the level of the average. A major point of the report is that, though American education has to serve both these ends, a unified result must finally be obtained. What is desired is a program of education which will unite all our citizens and in which they can all share.

A historical account of the loss of unity in recent years within the liberal arts college is also included in the first chapter. Mention is made of the contemporary concern caused thereby, and it is rightly implied that perhaps the greatest present need is for a new unifying principle in education. The members of this committee

attempt to give one on page 41. It is primarily the "belief in the worth and meaning of the human spirit, however one may understand it." A little later in the report they postulate the existence of an idea of man and society which has been distilled out of Western experience but which, transcending the past, is valid as a standard of judgment in itself.

The second chapter develops their theory of general education. Starting with a "belief in the dignity and mutual obligation of man," they go on to assert that the "true task of education is . . . so to reconcile the sense of pattern and direction deriving from heritage with the sense of experiment and innovation deriving from science that they may exist fruitfully together." It becomes clear in this chapter that what they mean by "general education" is pretty largely what is commonly called "liberal education," with this difference: "liberal education" is customarily thought of as an exclusive possession of the colleges; "general education" can refer to the same kind of education as it extends down into the schools and out into the adult world, and is therefore the preferable term. General education is distinguished from specialized education not so much by subject matter as by methods and outlook; it is concerned with "living" rather than with "competence in an occupation." What is needed at this time, they argue, is a program to infuse the traditional values of liberal education into our entire educational system.

The chapter also distinguishes areas of knowledge and traits of mind which are of concern in general education. The first include science, social studies, and the humanities; the second, the abilities to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, and to discriminate between values. At the end it is stated that it is an obligation of general education to see to it that one is both a good man, that is, "one who possesses an inner integration, poise, and firmness, which in the long run come from an adequate philosophy of life," and a good citizen, that is, essentially, one who is properly aware of the obligation to co-operate with his fellow-men.

Chapter iii examines more carefully the problems occasioned in American education by the facts that people exhibit great diversity in ability, interests, and outlook and that they have very various educational needs, as well as very unequal opportunities, for both economic and geographic reasons. Here the committee touches on a problem which has been of genuine concern to President Conant from the beginning of his administration: namely, the fact that there are about a hundred thousand young people of superior ability in our country each year who should, but cannot, go on to college because of financial reasons.

The chapter serves to emphasize the difficulties in the way of what is called the final purpose of all education, "to improve the average and speed the able while holding common goals before each." In view of all the diversity inherent in the situation, how, they ask, is any general education possible? And yet, it is the main thesis of the book that a satisfactory answer to this question must be found if we are to enjoy a complete democracy.

The fourth chapter discusses the curriculum of the secondary school. A section is devoted to each of the main areas of knowledge in which an effort is made to tell why its study is imperative and what is of first importance in it. The treatment of literature on pages 107 ff. might be of especial interest to librarians. At the close of the chapter attention is shifted from subject matter to the student, to his health, to his moral guidance, to the training of his emotions and will, and to a consideration of the forces at work upon him outside the school. This leads to a discussion of extracurricular activities and the theory of their usefulness.

In chapter v they make specific proposals for Harvard. It is stated that the situation there calls for no radical reform; that what is needed is rather a few alterations in a proved program. Their chief recommendations can be summarized as follows: There should be established a general introductory course in the humanities founded on the reading of a few great books, which they prefer to call "Great Texts of Literature"; a similar course in social studies to be called "Western Thought and Institutions"; an initial course in physical science and another in biological science designed primarily for the student who does not intend to take further work in the field; and several courses in all departments designed specifically to serve the ends of general education. Each student should be required to

take six courses in general education. There should also be set up a Committee on General Education to foster and protect the new interest amid the conflicting and grasping claims of the various specialist departments.

The authors of this report disclaim originality, exciting conclusions, and completeness. They modestly profess that reasonableness within carefully defined limits is their goal. Yet the wide circulation given the report suggests that a national significance is, in reality, claimed for it. In view of this implied larger claim, the report can be said to be disappointing.

It is an excellent thing to have attention called to the lack of unity in American education and to insist that the problems of the schools and of the colleges should be kept in view at one time in our thinking. It is also encouraging to find additional evidence of the uneasiness specialists are coming more and more to feel in their isolation and of an increasing desire on their part to get together. But for the rest the recommendations of the committee serve rather to bring Harvard abreast of recent developments than to break new ground.

The members of the committee made a commendable attempt to avoid preoccupation with the external and formal aspects of education, but they are clearly more at home in discussions of subject matter and of courses than they are in understanding the intricacies of the human mind. General education, therefore, despite their frequent protestations to the contrary, tends repeatedly to be seen as a wider range of courses, or of information around courses, and not as a greater awareness in a mind taught to discover the infinitely wide relationships and implications in any subject of special study when viewed in all its concreteness. Their attitude is shown in the predilection for the historical approach which crops up again and again in the report and by the inadequate understanding of the role of the fine arts in education which is revealed in it. The same confusion underlies the misgivings the members of the committee feel concerning courses taught in co-operation by professors from different departments. Their fear that such courses will be superficial shows that they are, despite themselves, thinking in terms of subject matter and that they miss the chief point of such courses, which is perhaps to draw specialists together, to foster a wider awareness and understanding in them, and so to produce an effect upon all their teaching which will lead toward a living general education.

In the course of the report the authors recommend the establishment at Harvard of a kind of department of general education. Then they add that they want to avoid having two faculties. There is the same uncertainty here, which suggests that they failed to see the full implications of their own diagnosis, or, rather, that, once the diagnosis was made, they lacked the insight to make a really efficacious prescription. What is needed at Harvard, as elsewhere, is not a new course or a new alignment of courses, not merely a new *modus vivendi* to ease an existing tension and again permit general and specialized education to live peacefully side by side. It is rather a new and stimulating vision as to how specialized education can be made liberal.

In face of the present misgivings about traditional educational practices and, more deeply, about scientific humanism, it was to have been hoped that the faculty members of our oldest and most famous university could have given us an inspired and enlightening glimpse ahead. What they have supplied, however, is largely a work of scholarship, a summing-up of what has already been thought and done. They aimed at, and achieved, reasonableness. But the fresh insight, the original and creative leadership we are looking for, are still to be found.

NATHAN M. PUSEY

Lawrence College
Appleton, Wisconsin

Education for Rural America. Edited by FLOYD W. REEVES. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Pp. 213. \$2.50.

Education for Rural America is a report of the Conference on Education in Rural Communities held at the University of Chicago in the summer of 1944, a conference in which there were participating educators from the local, county, state, and national levels; from elementary schools to colleges and universities; extension workers and members of the United States Department of Agriculture; and librarians and representatives of some of the important voluntary farm organizations. The wide spread in interests represented is in keeping with a trend which became evident during the later years of the depression and was given considerable impetus by the White House Conference on Rural Education held in the fall of 1944.

The practice of holding such conferences has

merits; but it also has limitations, not the least of which is the great amount of time, energy, and expense involved in travel and discussion for the relatively little headway made. Much of the conference time is given to reiteration of background material and somewhat glorified statements of the present program and practices of various agencies and organizations—very much of which information is already familiar, or at least readily accessible, to most of the conferees. Almost no time is given to actual group thinking (the White House Conference was a notable exception in this respect, in that it was assumed that the participants had been selected on the basis of a considerable common knowledge and understanding). On the positive side, there is gain in personal acquaintance and mutual respect and in the sense of significance and prestige gained both for the total program—in this case, rural education—and for its component parts or agents.

This review, to be sure, is concerned with the report of the conference rather than with the conference itself. But the conference technique has been mentioned because the report is significant less for the information it contains than as an incentive to similar conferences—a statement which is made without any thought of discrediting the subject matter of the report but rather with the thought of emphasizing the motivation to action which it contains. The subject matter itself probably had greater significance in the conference than in the report, for there the conferees, in formal or informal discussion periods, undoubtedly developed for themselves a co-ordination and balance which the report lacks. A collection of papers written for verbal presentation and discussion, as over against those written for publication, even when edited by one so able as Floyd Reeves, is likely to lack unity. And yet the report remains well worth the reading by anyone interested in rural education or in any other phase of rural life.

The report, as the editor suggests, may be broken down into three parts, the first dealing with background material, the second with formal education or schooling, and the third with educational programs of voluntary associations. "Rural" has been thought of as referring to communities with no population center as large as twenty-five hundred, the village-centered community predominating. As is all too frequently true in discussions of rural life, a disproportionate share of attention has been given to agricultural economics. Farm economy is

fundamental; but agriculture has no monopoly on economic considerations in rural life, nor has economics a monopoly on approaches to social well-being. As one of the contributors aptly states, the farmer has improved his condition when he has shown a vigorous interest in getting improvement. Even this writer overlooked the fact that only very slightly over one-half of rural people live on farms. To the editor of this report, who also served as organizer of the conference, may it be suggested that, another time, social interests and organizations should be given more attention. The churches, rural newspapers, public health units, Red Cross, P.T.A., women's clubs, and other similar institutions or organizations have left their imprint on rural life. They are more likely than those concerned primarily with economic matters to arouse the vigorous interest leading to improvement.

Newton Edwards as an educator and Theodore Schulz as an economist arrive at very much the same conclusions as to the relatively low income of farmers and the population pressure which makes imperative the migration of youth to cities. The inclusion of leisure as co-ordinate with income and migration in the heading of the one chapter is noteworthy. Hope is expressed in the thought that social statesmen have taken upon themselves the task of restoring American agriculture to the place of economic and social dignity befitting the contribution yeomen have made to our ideals and institutions. George Gant through his work in T.V.A. puts into practice his fundamental conviction that the abundant life—cultural richness, psychological security, and social strength and satisfaction—has a spiritual, as well as an economic, foundation in the husbanding of natural resources.

Those aware of the dominant role of the land-grant colleges and the extension program in agriculture's keeping pace with industry in the use of science and machinery will enjoy Lloyd Emmon's brief history of that development. Old hands in the field of rural education, particularly as it relates to elementary and secondary schools—and be it noted that some state departments of education, teachers colleges, and universities have a long and creditable history of leadership in this field—would read with raised eyebrows the statement that the land-grant colleges are properly equipped to give teaching in elementary schools a rural flavor. If the five objectives of education listed by Virgil Herrick are accepted, only one deals

with a rural flavor—that is, to improve the quality of living in the community the school serves. Rural teachers should have a sympathetic knowledge and understanding of rural life—social and economic, farm and village—and the agricultural colleges have a contribution to make to the profession in this area; also in the area in which they have excelled, that of a down-to-earth approach to immediate ends. For them to have as dominant a role in rural elementary education as in farming might well lead to a preponderant degree of earthiness and concern for economics which those familiar with the literature of rural education find long since rejected. There are those who would be willing to argue that it would be preferable for rural teachers, particularly elementary teachers, to keep predominantly in the main stream of the profession rather than in the main stream of agriculture.

The urgency of the need for larger units of control and still larger units of support for rural schools has been well stated by Howard Dawson. Those who believe rural schools are inferior to urban schools primarily because and in so far as they vary from urban schools, and those who believe that the social behavior of human beings can or should be reduced to mathematical formulas will agree with his arguments for larger units of attendance. In his discussion of library service for rural communities Leon Carnovsky also deals with the matter of adequate units of support and administration. Thus far, outmoded as many contend the county is as a unit of government, libraries, like other social institutions, such as health units, character-building agencies, etc., find the county or multicounty units most successful. Ralph Tyler has drawn from the experiences of the army in its training program further justification for much of the present-day educational practice and theory. From the purely rural angle, his chief contribution lies in the further evidence of a close relationship between the cost and the quantity and quality of education.

One-fourth of all the people in the world are members of co-operatives, and it is with the adult education program fundamental to that fact that E. R. Bowen deals. Timeliness and promotion have led to a great growth in discussion groups in all walks of life. The let-down mood of the postwar era will be the real test of their vitality. The Farm Bureau as described by Eugene Smaltz, the Junior Farm Bureau by B. F. Hennink, and the Farmers' Union by Mrs.

Jérôme Evanson have demonstrated through their programs—stimulated and directed somewhat from the state and national levels—that discussion can lead to understanding, broader interests, and action.

Throughout the report runs the usual over-tone of rural life as disadvantaged. The disadvantages are so obvious, particularly to urban eyes, that advantages, assets, and progress are overlooked. In a chapter generally appreciative of the problems of the rural school is the usual horrible example of an incident in a one-teacher school. Equally horrible examples could be found in any school in the land—from the smallest and most humble to the largest or most exclusive. But the public, because the outside of the one-teacher school building has not changed for generations, thinks that what goes on inside is equally antiquated. They step into it conditioned to look for the inadequate, and they find it; they step into the more palatial or expensive school expecting to be impressed, and they come away forgetting or explaining away the horrible example. One wonders if a change of key might not sometimes be advisable. No one mood, particularly so negative a one, can be expected to spur people on to higher levels of achievement. Four of the thirteen chapters of this report are based large upon experiences in Michigan, and a fifth has been greatly influenced by experiences in the same state, which happens to be the home state of this reviewer. Had he been less familiar with actual situations, possibly his points of agreement, as well as his points of disagreement, would have been less emphatic.

WILLIAM MCKINLEY ROBINSON

*Department of Rural Life and Education
Western Michigan College of Education*

Education for Use of Regional Resources: Research Translation and Regional Resource Use Education: The Report of Gatlinburg Conference II. Issued by the COMMITTEE ON SOUTHERN REGIONAL STUDIES AND EDUCATION OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION. Washington: American Council on Education, 1945. Pp. 129.

On the same day on which *Education for Use of Regional Resources* came to my desk, I had occasion to refer to the old "blue-back" Ele-

mentary Spelling-Book, by Noah Webster, with which I began my "schooling" in the early 1880's. I renewed my acquaintance with the first list of two-syllable words to which I was introduced as an elementary-school pupil. If it was the famous list that began with *baker*, followed on with *lady* and *shady*, and included, among other words, *clover*, *trover*, *seton*, *copal*, *horal*, *hymen*, *penal*, and *venal*. I also experienced again some of the same sense of frustration which I felt when I was first confronted with these words that, apart from possibly giving me some idea of pronunciation, syllabification, and rhyme, were far removed from my daily vocabulary and contributed a minimum to my understanding of the community of which I was a member. There was also slight similarity between the vocabulary I was taught and the words which are normally to be found in the lists of the first thousand or first three thousand words that the elementary-school child is expected to learn today.

This gap in the curriculum of the public schools in the South in the 1880's between the subjects studied and the life for which the schools were intended to prepare the pupil constituted one of the greatest weaknesses of the southern educational program. The curriculum of that period signally failed to meet the requirements of the children of the region, and the textbooks and other materials for use in instruction suffered from a lack of realism and pertinence to the problems and life of the region that resulted largely in boredom and futility for the pupil. The fact that the equipment, of the schools, the majority of which were of the one-room, one-teacher variety, did not include manual or visual materials for study further widened the gap between what was and what should have been taught.

Although this situation has been greatly improved in recent years, it is still one which is in need of further improvement, and it is the one with which the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education was appointed in 1943 to deal. To this end the committee began at once the development of a program of education in the South that is intended to enable the South to utilize more fully and intelligently its natural, human, and institutional resources and, in consequence of doing this, to contribute more fully to the development and enrichment of the cultural well-being of the nation of which it is a part.

The committee has taken several important

steps to achieve this purpose. First of all, during the first year of its existence it made a careful study "of the resource use needs of the southern area, the research materials bearing on those needs, methods of improving educational materials dealing with resources and resource use, and the possibilities of inter-agency and interstate cooperation." In doing this, it brought together educational and research leaders and "representatives of state, regional, and federal educational, library, health, and related organizations, analyzed the problems involved, and outlined procedures for their solution. This aspect of the work was considered by the first Gatlinburg Conference in 1943, the results of which were published in *Channeling Research into Education* (reviewed in the *Library Quarterly*, XV [April, 1945], 162-63).

The first Gatlinburg conference was followed by a second conference at Gatlinburg, in 1944, in which more than a hundred individuals from twelve southern states and fourteen regional agencies participated. The results of this second conference at Gatlinburg are summarized in the present report, *Education for Use of Regional Resources*.

This publication carries the work of the committee up to the present and outlines clearly the nature of the committee's plans for the future. The specific chapter headings indicate the range and scope of the plan: chap. i, "Toward Bridging the Gap between Research and Education"; chap. ii, "Gatlinburg Conference II as an Example of Conference Technique"; chap. iii, "Man and Nature in the Modern World"; chap. iv, "Resources: A Basis for Understanding"; chap. v, "The Sociologist Looks at Resource-Use Education"; chap. vi, "The Panel Reviews the Status of Southern Resource-Use Education and Research Translation Programs"; chap. vii, "A Volume on Regional Resources: Suggested Research Translation Techniques"; chap. viii, "Materials Services in the States and Region"; chap. ix, "The News Letter as a Technique in Research Translation"; chap. x, "Techniques in Resource-Use Education"; chap. xi, "Non-School Agencies and Educational Media"; chap. xii, "Resource-Use Education and Institutions of Higher Learning"; and Appendix, "Personnel of Gatlinburg Conference II."

The conference was significant for a number of reasons. (1) It restated and re-emphasized the purpose of the committee: to aid the great masses of people in the South "to learn to apply

scientific information toward the solution of everyday problems of living." (2) It succeeded, in a gratifying way, in bringing more than a hundred key representatives of state, regional, and national agencies together to plan cooperatively in attacking the problem. (3) It secured the co-operation of George Peabody College in setting up and operating a regional materials service to aid other agencies in developing curricular materials for use in southern schools. Several state departments of education are developing special materials for the use of schools in individual states, and colleges and universities have begun to utilize such materials in the training of teachers. (4) It commissioned the Institute of Research in Social Science of the University of North Carolina to prepare a volume on the findings of research that are applicable to southern conditions and that will be suited to the requirements of pupils in the eighth-grade of the public schools. (5) It began the publication of a news-letter, *Resource-Use Education*, which will aid the executive secretary of the committee at the University of North Carolina in keeping all the agencies working together.

This program, influenced somewhat by the realistic and singularly effective educational method of the Tennessee Valley Authority and aimed at the more extensive use of research on southern resources and problems, marks the beginning and intensification of a movement that should be highly stimulating to all educators in the South. It should prove equally stimulating to southern librarians, since it not only includes them as members of co-operating agencies such as state library commissions and school, state, and regional library associations but affords them, as individual librarians, the opportunity to provide library materials of all kinds which may be used in implementing the program at all educational levels. It makes possible for them the utilization of methods and materials which should enrich the entire program of elementary, secondary, and adult education, and should go far in the achievement of the goal which the committee has set for the South.

The work of the committee has been supported by the General Education Board and has been under the general oversight of the American Council on Education.

LOUIS R. WILSON

*School of Library Science
University of North Carolina*

A State University Surveys the Humanities.

Edited by LOREN C. MACKINNEY, NICHOLSON B. ADAMS, and HARRY K. RUSSELL. ("University of North Carolina Sesquicentennial Publications," LOUIS R. WILSON, Director.) Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1945. Pp. xi+262. \$4.00.

The numerous essays in defense of the humanities which have appeared during the last decade are not altogether reassuring to those who maintain their faith in the liberal arts. A generation ago, apologists for the classics were writing similar books to prove that Latin and Greek were indispensable in American education; but their arguments did not prevail, and it is possible, if not likely, that other humane subjects will suffer a decline like that which has brought the ancient languages to their present state. Studies which have a clear ascendancy do not seek advocates to plead their cause at the bar of public opinion where the policies of American colleges and universities are determined. Their friends go, rather to the foundations and to Congress, and they return with substantial grants-in-aid.

This is not to say, of course, that those who speak for the humanities have a weak case or that they fail to present it ably. The symposium entitled *A State University Surveys the Humanities* is, as a whole, interesting, timely, and important. Most of the contributors to it have given intelligent consideration to the place of the liberal arts in modern society and to the relations between many special fields of study and liberal education. If they have not all found a common definition of the humanities and if some of their essays make only glancing references to the central problem, these faults are perhaps inescapable in the plan originally projected.

It might have been well if the writers whose essays make up the first three parts of the volume had begun by studying Norman Foerster's views on "The Future of the Humanities in State Universities," which are printed as the fourth, and concluding, section of the book. The judicious reader will be well advised to begin here; for Mr. Foerster, who has given many years to university teaching and administration and who has thought purposefully about his work, presents an admirably clear and coherent argument for the continued support of liberal studies. For him humanism is defined as "self-knowledge and self-realization."

Man is a creature, it would seem, who recognizes in his constitution a power of command, whether this is regarded as rational or ethical; a power of command over his thronging desires and passions, by means of which he shapes his desires and passions in harmonious expression. Life for him is action, external action and, even more, internal action, an inner working upon himself. The good life comes not by nature, but is an achievement based on progressive self-knowledge and habituation to what is good for his constitution. He realizes the good life not apart from men but among them, with the help of all men of good will, co-operation meaning primarily the relation of example and imitation. From the inner life flows the outer life, action taking the form of deeds, works of speculation, works of fine art, works of useful art, all institutions. The measure of all things, man himself as a complete, symmetrical being, is more important than nature, which gives him materials to work with, or the instruments of living which he fashions (such as the products of what we call technology), or any collective entity such as society, state, or folk. While perceiving that life is full of variety and change, he rests his hopes in personal and social values that are constant and enduring [pp. 208-9].

This view, supported by tradition and experience, has in our time become clouded and obscured by new beliefs—especially by a naturalistic philosophy, by utilitarian and materialistic aims, by a faith in progress. The effect has been to establish the "student-centered" curriculum, with an elective system, a great multiplicity of choices, and the encouragement of vocational training and specialization. If, in the crisis to which our civilization has been brought, we are not satisfied with the results such education has achieved, we may find new hope through a fresh realization of the dignity and of the spiritual nature of man, with a consequent return to the central tradition of Western learning. "The Great Curriculum," as Mr. Foerster defines it, must include science, which is animated by the quest of knowledge for its own sake and by the desire for use; it must also, of course, stress the humanities—history, literature, art, and philosophy—so that the student's grasp of "the best that man has learned and said and done" may be complete. Of the value of the social sciences, in their present state of development, Mr. Foerster is skeptical. They ape the methods of science without reaching scientific exactitude; and, precisely because they claim to be scientific, they cannot assert moral and social values.

To these observations are added some acute comments on "the Great Faculty" and "the

Great Administration." Mr. Foerster's experience has taught him the pressing need for more courageous and humane men, rather than for more ingenious machinery for administration, in our universities; and he concludes with the suggestion that a sound democracy, realizing this need, will see that it is met.

Less swayed by the relativities that obsess the academic mind, the public is inclined to the belief that essentials are always essentials, good at all times. Despite its seeming inertness it looks for leadership, in education as in politics, which can inspire it with purposes a little above its ordinary self.

When these views are used as a touchstone by which to test the ideas of Mr. Foerster's fellow-contributors, the results are interesting. Robert E. Coker, writing in behalf of the biological sciences, agrees in seeing the necessity for a humane approach to scientific studies and justly stresses the interrelation of the sciences and the arts. Archibald Henderson, speaking for mathematics and the physical sciences, goes further in bringing out the aesthetic value of these studies. Of him, the question might fairly be asked: How many teachers realize or can show their pupils that "about science to the scientist, as about art to the artist, there is a prevailing color, allure, and glamour, analogous to romance"? The advocates for the social sciences, in a less lyrical vein, seem generally to take the position that their subjects can somehow furnish a base on which the lovers of culture can build. To quote John F. Dashiell:

The methods of science are non-moral and non-normative; and to psychology as such the terms "good" and "bad" are irrelevant. But for ethics and aesthetics and for human welfare psychologists are busy erecting a solid foundation. As they acquire more and more adequate data as to why this recidivist or that neurotic, this failing student or that unsuccessful business man, behaves just as he does, then the means are put at our disposal for avoiding just such human events and for getting human nature under control [p. 127].

Or, again, Thomas C. Boushall exalts business with the claim:

The businessmen of America are setting out to find ways and means of increasing the earning capacity of the total people, of putting more money into the consumers' hands, so that they can buy better things and more of them. This means that business is being oriented to the proposition that it can only hope to grow and expand if it develops and maintains an ever-rising standard of living for an

ever-increasing proportion of the people . . . [pp. 185-86].

As this concept of expanding business depends for its success exactly upon the degree to which it carries before it the rising well-being of all the people, so the Christian-Humanist ideal in the revelation and recognition of the ultimate dignity of the last and least individual. Democracy in its modern fuller meaning of material satisfactions for all and the freedom to express the totality of one's inherent capacities, finds complementary expression in the Christian-Humanist principle and in the success of the new economics [p. 187].

From a slightly different point of view, Dr. George Carrington sees the humanities as a useful adjunct to the art of healing. The well-balanced man, he discovers, will be healthy—at least mentally.

. . . Oliver indicated that functional nervous disease does not develop in a person who has a feeling of personal relationship with God.

So the healer is again back on the threshold of an enlarged temple. This new hospital-temple has many new gadgets and altars, with X-ray machines and chemical laboratories, with diathermy, and physical therapy, with electro-cardiographs and light waves, with antitoxins and vaccines, with sulfa drugs and penicillin. But he is back at the temple again, dusting off the altar cloths and recognizing man's claim that he is something more than himself [p. 166].

Such a statement brings us some distance from Mr. Foerster; but, to do justice to Dr. Carrington, it must be said that he devotes his chief energies, not to a discussion of the humanities, but to "socialized medicine." A similar tendency to neglect the main issue appears elsewhere. A. A. F. Seawell, writing eloquently about the service which conscientious lawyers contribute to society, appears to confuse "humanism" with "humanitarianism." Clemens Sommer is principally concerned with presenting a theory of "cycles" in art, showing that realism, naturalism, decorativism, and selectivism follow each other and urging that an understanding of this sequence will help the individual to integrate art in his life. The use of the historical approach to the problem is apparent also in Glen Haydon's essay on music, which he wishes to give a prominent place, on the ground that it has traditionally satisfied man's aesthetic needs. George C. Taylor provides a rather barren cento of quotations to prove (what scarcely needs proving in the year of the Nuremberg trials) that many writers have discovered "The Beast in Man." This is, however, balanced by

the perceptive essay by Helmut Kuhn, on "The Humanity of Man," in which the dangers of "physicalism" and "biologism" are pointed out, and the thesis that man is simply an animal endowed with intelligence stoutly denied:

... For better or for worse, he is an altogether unique being, projecting, as it were, into a dimension foreign to animality.

All this is not said in confutation of the idea that rationality is the *differentia specifica* of our race. If only we fight shy of that emasculated idea of reason that infected post-Cartesian philosophy (reason cut loose from passion and debarred from vision), we may find the ancient concept still useful. Or rather it will prove indispensable. It alone meets a second requirement to be fulfilled by any definition of man. It assigns to him the place of a potential spectator. As rational, man does not live in an environment only, but in a world. He is able to discover things as they are by themselves, and he does so for the sake of discovery. Immersed as he is in the totality of things, he may yet rise above participation and face the world (including himself) as a spectacle. Cosmology, not ecology, describes his status.

Only for a philosophy which encompasses man in the role of a rational spectator do the elements of abstract knowledge acquired by the natural sciences coalesce into a concrete picture of reality. For natural science presupposes a fact which no natural science will ever make intelligible: the human observer. Only by virtue of understanding himself can man understand his sciences [p. 75].

Thus the wheel comes full circle, and Mr. Foerster's position is again asserted. It must be man who establishes values for his world, not the world which forces values upon man. The nature of the values which he cherishes may, indeed, determine whether man's world continues to exist. Those who think the problem simply an academic one and who trust for its solution to an incalculable Providence, or to some process of evolution, can scarcely be aware of the precariousness of the present situation.

For there is one aspect of their subject which the scholars at North Carolina have not presented very fully. In modern times the humanist has been able to take satisfaction both in his own efforts toward perfection and in his consciousness that, at least locally, he was leavening the lump and providing useful leadership. In our day, however, no society or civilization can count upon even a comparative isolation, with a corresponding freedom to work out its own salvation. "One world" is more than a slogan; and there is far too much danger that the sisterhood of nations will be demonstrated in the way Carlyle's "forlorn Irish widow"

proved hers—by spreading typhus fever. The *libido dominandi* still rules many; and the whole people seem already committed to a materialistic and naturalistic philosophy. What is a humanely educated and humanely governed nation to do in the face of such opposition? There can be no acquiescence, no shirking of the issue; and for compromise or slow triumph there may be insufficient time. The race is with catastrophe.

WARNER G. RICE

University of Michigan Library

The Educational Process. By LUTHER PFAHLER EISENHART. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1945. Pp. 87. \$1.00.

On the basis of his experience during more than four decades on the Princeton University faculty, both as a teacher and as an administrator, Dean Eisenhart here describes and defends his concept of liberal education.

As a background for his specific proposals for improvement, he outlines such varied criticisms of college education as the following:

Too often the list of required courses in a given college represents a compromise between pressure groups of the faculty [p. 17].

The very purpose of . . . laboratory work is defeated . . . when the student is provided with a manual which sends him through the motions in each experiment but in no way calls for ingenuity or any understanding of the principles involved [p. 20].

[In mathematics,] students have been required to remember formulas and equations, and learn the techniques involved. They have worked problems similar to those worked in class by the teacher. Memory and imitation alone are required. Little or no emphasis is placed upon understanding of the ideas involved [p. 21].

One shortcoming of college education in general is that it does not provide the student with experience in setting up a problem, seeking information, dealing with it, applying the necessary techniques, arriving at conclusions and presenting results in a clear and precise manner [p. 36].

As a means for improving higher education (particularly at the upper-class level) the author proposes a plan of independent study, culminating in a Senior thesis and a final comprehensive examination. Since he holds that opportunities for independent study should be open to all upperclassmen and not restricted to a group chosen on the basis of past performance,

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he is critical of the honors plan as it is used in many colleges and universities.

The author is not unaware of the relationship of the library to his proposals for higher education. He does not

agree with that fantastic command of one educator: "open the library and close the classroom." The plan I propose seeks to fuse the library, the laboratory and the classroom. It seeks to provide the various means by which the student may participate actively in his own education and thus become an educated man [p. 47].

To this reviewer, the author appears to be on much sounder ground in his discussions of higher education than in his consideration of the secondary school. Although he recognizes that the secondary school serves both as a preparatory school and as a terminal educational institution, he appears to give undue emphasis to the college preparatory function.

Emphasis upon social studies in high school is contrary to the view of scholars in this field. They hold that the study of these subjects should be reserved for those whose minds have been trained and judgment developed by the older disciplines and who are in possession of established knowledge, particularly in the history of mankind [p. 68].

The author recognizes the importance of citizenship training for all but contends that the high-school pupil who does not go on to college needs to have his mental processes stabilized and rendered precise. . . . He will find in appropriate courses in adult education and in discussions in the press, in books, and over the radio opportunities to learn about controversial subjects in politics and economics and be qualified to exercise discriminating judgment with regard to the views presented [pp. 71-72].

To this reviewer, the author appears to be unduly optimistic regarding the potential transfer of training from high-school experiences of the type he recommends to the assumption of necessary citizenship responsibilities.

The final fourth of the volume is given over to a discussion of the graduate school, in which the author quite correctly emphasizes the graduate school as the training ground of college teachers.

Any comprehensive treatment of the secondary school, the college, and the graduate school is impossible within the limits of an eighty-seven page book. Dean Eisenhart has, however, succeeded in outlining his educational philosophy and has some suggestions for implementing it. This reviewer, for one, would wel-

come a book by the author in which he discusses and describes at greater length his ideas for collegiate education. In such a volume there would need to be an important chapter on the place of the library in college teaching of the type recommended by Dean Eisenhart.

B. LAMAR JOHNSON

*Stephens College Library
Columbia, Missouri*

"Adult Education for Negroes in the United States," *Journal of Negro Education*, XIV, No. 3 (summer, 1945; Yearbook No.). Washington: Howard University Press, 1945. Pp. 240. \$2.00.

This kaleidoscopic survey of the adult educational activities of schools, colleges, libraries, museums, churches, labor unions, agricultural and health agencies, and such organizations as the N.A.A.C.P., the Urban League, the Y.W.C.A., and the Y.M.C.A. is a descriptive overview rather than a careful appraisal. It serves to emphasize the tremendous urgency for a mass public-education program, especially in health, citizenship-training, and co-operative community projects. This is necessary both to meet the Negro's need and to establish a sound democratic community life, free from fear and chauvinism on both sides of the color line, into which minority groups are properly integrated.

The emphasis throughout accords with recent thinking in the adult education field that "real adult learnings take place in the process of making the community a better place in which to live." As the various agencies learn to co-operate for more effective joint programs, this ideal will be more readily realized. It would seem also to be the best way to reach the great mass of adults who are not reached through the usual channels. The Farm Security Administration is an example of an agency which helped the lower economic third to help themselves.

The greatest needs are those familiar to all adult educators: more and better trained leaders, more and better reading materials for adults with limited reading ability, and a wider use of visual aids. Part III, on the evaluation, extension, and improvement of programs, with articles by Gordon W. Blackwell, Alain L. Locke, Luther P. Jackson, and L. D. Reddick, is of most general interest.

The chapter on the role of the library points

out the meager service given to Negroes by public libraries in the South, particularly in rural areas, and describes significant programs of individual libraries in the South and elsewhere. It suggests the extension now of service to Negroes by Negro colleges through contractual agreements. It highlights the need for simpler reading materials in quantity and urges more dynamic service, as well as wider coverage on a regional basis, and increasing dependence on visual aids.

MARION E. HAWES

*Enoch Pratt Free Library
Baltimore, Maryland*

"A Survey of the Regional Library Service at Murray State Teachers College: Preliminary Draft." By a committee composed of HELEN M. HARRIS, KENNETH R. WILLIAMS, and CYRIL O. HOULE, Chairman. Frankfort, Ky., 1945. Pp. 89. (Mimeo graphed.)

Rather than set up its own library system, the Tennessee Valley Authority co-operated with local agencies in establishing regional libraries near the dam sites. This action carried out the T.V.A. policy of encouraging local support of social services, in the hope that they would survive the period of construction, with its large appropriations. When the T.V.A. withdrew its support of regional libraries, the sponsors of the northernmost library, in the western tip of Kentucky, appointed a committee to survey the project and recommend future action. The sponsors were the T.V.A., the Kentucky Library Extension Division, and Murray State Teachers College. The surveyors were a librarian who has co-operated in the T.V.A. program, the dean of the University of Georgia College of Education, and a University of Chicago specialist in adult education.

The surveyors investigated a new departure in library practice—rural public and school library service administered by a teachers college. They found little evidence that the mixture has combined chemically. The college and the library have gone their respective ways without much influence upon each other. During the six years since the library service began, local support has slowly grown from nothing to one-fifth the normal budget of \$10,000 a year. The college made its first appropriation the last year of T.V.A. support. The committee at-

tributes this comparative failure to the abnormal conditions of T.V.A. construction and the war. The main question remains unanswered—whether or not regional library service is a legitimate and feasible activity for a teachers college to undertake.

The surveyors do not attempt to answer the question, since they were appointed to investigate the Murray library, not to discuss the possibilities of the Murray experiment in general. After examining the social resources of the region, the objectives of the college, and the functions of a regional library, they recommend that the experiment be continued, financed by a foundation grant. The changes they suggest in the organization and operation of the library would bring about a new type of extension service. Through the library the college would improve primary education by bringing books and teaching materials to the schools, show student teachers how to use a central library, give schoolteachers a new opportunity for in-service professional education, and co-operate in community group activities.

The Murray experiment and the survey report challenge discussion. They suggest a new outlet for a rising and energetic type of college. Teachers colleges have come far in the last two or three decades—from two-year normal schools to four- and five-year colleges offering varied curriculums. Despite their growth, they have not lost contact with the people about them. They attract students from the low- and middle-income groups in the surrounding territory, most of whom remain near by after graduation. Neighboring communities hear their professors at club meetings and school commencements. If the makeshift at Kentucky Dam develops along the lines laid down by the surveyors, it will show teachers colleges the way to serve their territories as intimately and usefully as the agricultural colleges do.

JOHN VANMALE

University of South Carolina Library

Books and Libraries in Wartime. Edited by PIERCE BUTLER. ("Charles R. Walgreen Foundation Lectures.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Pp. 159. \$1.50.

Several lecture series under the auspices of the Charles R. Walgreen Foundation at the University of Chicago have had for their gen-

eral subject "the effects of the war upon, and the contributions to the war efforts of, important American institutions." One series of lectures in this group was delivered in the spring of two years ago under the sponsorship of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, and eight of these ten lectures (the other two were not available for printing) have now been issued as the fifteenth of the "Walgreen Studies of American Institutions" under the title *Books and Libraries in Wartime*. Lectures on "War and Journalism" and on "New Rivals of the Press: Film and Radio" have been included in this series and in this volume, though these subjects might easily have become extended into separate volumes.

The lecturers were speaking from the experiences and statistics of the first half of World War II; but, it may be said, these estimates of the significance and trends of the war's influence on books and libraries seem remarkably satisfactory from today's longer perspective.

Dr. Pierce Butler, on "War in Library History," reviews briefly and movingly the tragic impact of war on libraries, with the irreparable losses—cultural and spiritual. To these may be added the unwritten books of potential authors whose lives were cut short and the loss from the physical destruction of books, as in Britain, France, Germany, Italy, and wherever war has struck. The cumulative report we are still receiving from abroad makes this picture even more staggering. Then there are the good and useful books destroyed in paper salvage and the books scattered by confiscation. Dr. Butler's estimates of the effect of war on the movement of books from one collection or one country to another should be considered by the book trade as well as by libraries.

The summary on "Books and the Soldier" is authoritative as coming from Lieutenant Colonel Ray L. Trautman, who directed the program of the service of libraries through their dramatic expansion to an estimated total of two thousand army libraries in 1944. If the returning men are to be retained as library patrons, the eight principles suggested by Colonel Trautman for modernizing the libraries at home are worth studying.

Joseph Brandt's lecture on "War and the Book Trade" offers words of caution to an industry grown confident by the easy sales of war years. "Culturally," he asserts, "we are one of the backward nations of the world. Our text-

books discourage further reading and, to our busy tourists, it is more important that a town has a good filling station than a good bookstore." But in final summary Mr. Brandt becomes more hopeful and sees the war making new readers, while fresh publishing enterprises are producing books with wider price ranges and seeking broader markets.

Leon Carnovsky's long experience in producing and evaluating the statistics of book-reading renders his collection of facts on "War and the Reading Public" particularly valuable. From various studies which have been made on the fighting and home fronts, he concludes: "We shall not overnight become a nation of book-readers, but we may anticipate with confidence a postwar period when people will return to their libraries and when some of the thousands who became book-buyers in wartime will continue to buy books."

In the two final lectures of the series Ralph Beals of the University of Chicago Libraries makes judicious estimates of the supply for library collectors as a result of the war and national shortages of printed documents and books, while Archibald MacLeish eloquently pleads for attention to the world-wide needs for the materials for democratic culture.

The University of Chicago justifies its reputation as a center of research by supplying most of the speakers for this series. As the war experience takes perspective, there is early need for similar analyses covering the full war period.

FREDERIC G. MELCHER

Publishers' Weekly
New York City

The House of Macmillan (1843-1943). By CHARLES MORGAN. New York: Macmillan Co., 1944. Pp. 248. \$3.00.

On the tenth of November, 1843, the British Museum received a foolscap octavo of ninety-two pages entitled *The Philosophy of Training*. It was written by A. R. Craig, late classical master in Glasgow Normal Seminary, and was described as containing "suggestions on the necessity of normal schools for teachers to the wealthier classes, and strictures on the prevailing mode of teaching languages." That this slender volume was indifferently received is not surprising, for it encountered the stiffest of competition. Eighteen forty-three was the year

of *Past and Present*, *Martin Chuzzlewit*, *Modern Painters*, Macaulay's *Essays*, and Mill's *Logic*. But, neglected or not, two young booksellers were happy—they had published their first book. Daniel Macmillan was then thirty years old, though even at that time a veteran of twenty years' experience in the book trade. Alexander, his younger brother, was but twenty-five and a comparative newcomer to the business. Daniel was harassed by ill health, and both were heavily in debt; but in the lives of these two was to be found one of the last great examples of the age-old unity between publishing and bookselling; and the patrons who came to the modest bookshop at Number One Trinity street, Cambridge, to purchase books stayed in the publishing house to write them.

For almost a decade the success of the new firm was not conspicuous; it was the acquisition of Charles Kingsley and Thomas Hughes that really put the new undertaking firmly on its feet. But during this initial period the upper room at Number One became a common-room where authors, young and old alike, met to discuss books or theology or social reform; and the Macmillans were learning the cardinal principle of all publishing—that the enterprise is "deeply and inescapably personal" and that "only the devotion and the individuality of its chiefs can make or preserve it." This devotion Alexander Macmillan certainly had in the fullest measure. He was his "own taster," and the submitted manuscripts were never perfunctorily read. In long, honest letters, of which those to Hardy are a conspicuous example, everyone, the accepted and the rejected alike, was given the forthright and sincere criticism that he could respect and understand. Even Shaw, who, perhaps more than any other, had a just cause for complaint, observed that his rejection slips were "highly creditable to the firm's readers," and "in fact they thought more of my jejune prentice work than I did myself."

The decade of the sixties brought continued success and increased expansion. The offices had been moved from Cambridge to London; the bookselling business, which had been divorced from publishing, was intrusted to Charles Bowes and later became best known as Bowes and Bowes; and Alexander discovered that it was no longer possible for him to carry alone such a large burden—to remain always his "own taster." So George Craik became a partner; and the distinguished names of John Morley, George Grove, and Norman Lockyer

were added to the staff. The selection was indeed fortunate. Lockyer assumed responsibility for scientific works; Morley was to become the architect of the first "English Men of Letters Series"; and Grove attained fame through his great *Dictionary of Music and Musicians*.

It is pointless to trace further, in a review, the fortunes of this, one of the most important of publishing enterprises. Let it suffice merely to mention the proliferation of activities, the founding of *Macmillan's Magazine* and *Nature*, the establishment of branch offices across the Atlantic and elsewhere, the war with the "Times Book Club," over the Net Book Agreement, and the many long-term undertakings that have made the Macmillan list so distinguished. Efforts were not always crowned with success, and selections were not always fortunate. The inability to recognize the genius latent in the youthful Shaw was their most conspicuous failure. *Robert Elsmere* slipped through their fingers, and *Lorna Doone* went to another house "only . . . by an accident." Furthermore, Mazo de la Roche, Hugh Walpole, and Margaret Mitchell might better have been left to oblivion, though it would be difficult for a publisher of *Gone with the Wind* to view his financial statements with a tearful eye. But one can scarcely look at a publisher's list which includes such diverse titles as *Alice*, *The Golden Bough*, *Tess*, *The Statesman's Year-Book*, *Water-Babies*, *The American Commonwealth*, and *The Economic Consequences of the Peace* without profound admiration for the critical acumen and catholicity of its editorial staff.

In *The House of Macmillan* Charles Morgan has written a thoroughly delightful book. It is not, as it might have been, glutted with detail and pleasant trivialities. It is sympathetic and understanding without being sentimental, even at points where sentimentality might easily have crept in, for obviously the firm and the ideals for which it stood have taken a strong hold upon the affections of the author. The great literary figures of the nineteenth century crowd the pages of this little volume: Tennyson, "tall and broad-shouldered as a son of Anak"; Dodgson, with his interminable "fussing" over the variant bindings of *Alice*; the young Hardy, struggling to produce a literary work which his publishers thought worthy of print; the unhappy Kingsley, entangled in the web of Newman's dialectic; and a host of others.

Here is no definitive history in the academic sense, but throughout are isolated bits of origi-

nal material for which even the most critical scholar will be grateful. The account of Hardy's early relations with his publishers is not only particularly full but includes some hitherto unpublished letters. Similarly, the early work of Shaw is presented in a new light. These are, indeed, welcome additions to a historical narrative which, in less competent hands, might easily have degenerated into little more than an annotated chronology and list of publications. One should not neglect to mention the fact that a short but adequate Index makes these hidden morsels readily available.

With good reason the author has restricted his story to the London office, indicating but briefly the manner in which the American enterprise began, developed, and grew in independence in relation to the parent organization. In 1946 the Macmillan Company of New York will celebrate its fiftieth anniversary; and that event, according to Mr. Morgan, will be marked by the publication of a separate history of the younger firm. One may infer that this has already been intrusted to an American author, who, if he is to equal the standard established by the present volume, will have no easy task.

J. H. SHERA

University of Chicago Library

Fifty Years of Best Sellers, 1895-1945. By ALICE PAYNE HACKETT. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1945. Pp. viii+140. \$3.00.

This little volume presents a cross-section of American reading taste for the past half-century. The books most popular, year by year, since 1895 are listed; and under each listing there are recorded a few of the salient contemporary occurrences. The latter are too brief and sketchy to do more than recall outstanding events; they practically never reveal any connection between current events and the achievement of best-sellerdom. Indeed, they even suggest the opposite—that, at least in fiction, the great sales records are rolled up by books having nothing whatever to do with important affairs of the day. The titles here reported are based on the listings in *The Bookman* from 1895 through 1911 and on those in *Publishers' Weekly* and *Bowker Book Guides* since 1912. These listings, in turn, have all been based on reports from bookstores. The volume is completed with sec-

tions on "Best-Seller Subjects" (the Bible, comic books, juveniles, etc.), "American Best Sellers, 1880-1945, in Order of Sales," "Alphabetical List of American Best Sellers to 1945," "Best Sellers before 1880," and a "Selective Bibliography."

In general, it is difficult to discern patterns in this record of popularity. There is understandably a strong interest in Europe and the war throughout the present decade, but otherwise the best-sellers of 1940 are of the same literary genre as those of 1930. Nevertheless, there are differences, particularly if comparisons are made between 1940 and 1920. Here are the fiction leaders of 1920:

Zane Grey, *The Man of the Forest*
 Peter B. Kyne, *Kindred of the Dust*
 Harold Bell Wright, *The Re-creation of Brian Kent*
 James Oliver Curwood, *The River's End*
 Irving Bacheller, *A Man for the Ages*
 Eleanor H. Porter, *Mary-Marie*
 Joseph C. Lincoln, *The Portygee*
 E. Phillips Oppenheim, *The Great Impersonation*
 Ethel M. Dell, *The Lamp in the Desert*
 Kathleen Norris, *Harriet and the Piper*

Compare these with the fiction best-sellers of 1940:

Richard Llewellyn, *How Green Was My Valley*
 Christopher Morley, *Kitty Foyle*
 Jan Struther, *Mrs. Miniver*
 Ernest Hemingway, *For Whom the Bell Tolls*
 Sholem Asch, *The Nazarene*
 F. van Wyck Mason, *Stars on the Sea*
 Kenneth Roberts, *Oliver Wisewell*
 John Steinbeck, *Grapes of Wrath*
 Louis Bromfield, *Night in Bombay*
 Nina Fedorova, *The Family*

Clearly, if best-sellers may be regarded as at all representative of general reading taste—a very large "if," by the way—the nation is reading a more mature brand of literature than in the earlier period. On the other hand, it may mean simply that the demand for Zane Grey, Harold Bell Wright, Ethel Dell, *et al.*, is now diffused among their imitators and that the change in reading taste is more apparent than real. It is an interesting question, and one that should receive the attention of students of popular reading.

The volume as a whole is packed with interesting, frequently surprising, information. Though librarians are all aware of the steady audience commanded by Charles Sheldon's *In His Steps* (1897), few of them would have guessed that it had sold over eight million

copies. Dale Carnegie's success with *How To Win Friends and Influence People* is, if anything, even more spectacular; the book, published only in 1937, has already passed the two and three-quarter million mark in sales. But perhaps with books of this sort the first two million are the easiest; it remains to be seen whether its appeal will persist, as has Sheldon's. Of the top ten since 1895, all with sales beyond two million, only three are fiction; and, of these, two (*Gone with the Wind* and *A Tree Grows in Brooklyn*) were book-club selections. The rise of the comic book is also something to reckon with. Miss Hackett tells us that they sell, in magazine form, about 18,000,000 copies monthly! Some of the better juveniles do well, but they all fade before Horatio Alger, whose sales are estimated at between 120,000,000 and 250,000,000. Books of genuine poetry are hardly to be looked for on best-seller lists; the acclaim given a Robinson or a Millay is feeble in the face of Edgar Guest (sales of about 300,000 a year) and Robert W. Service (over 1,000,000 sales in all).

The rise of the book club and especially the wider distribution of books through such new outlets as the newsstand and the drugstore will undoubtedly have a great effect upon popular reading. Their book sales are unfortunately not yet included in current *Publishers' Weekly* best-seller reports; indeed, it is difficult to see how trustworthy information from them can be economically collected. Yet there is no blinking the fact that they are having a tremendous effect upon reading. No less important is the influence of the reprint market, now tremendously expanded by Pocket Books, Bantam Books, and other low-cost series. When we have facts about these newer sources comparable with those which Miss Hackett has given us about the more conventional ones, we shall know a lot more about the nature of popular reading and best-sellers than we do now.

LEON CARNovsky

Graduate Library School
University of Chicago

The Governing of Men: General Principles and Recommendations Based on Experience at a Japanese Relocation Camp. By ALEXANDER H. LEIGHTON. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1945. Pp. xvi+404. \$3.75.

For those who are concerned with the basic questions of how people live together in organized human society, the war is not likely to

produce a more significant book than *The Governing of Men*. The experience it records represents a dramatic test as to whether basic social science analysis and techniques are sufficiently developed to be of assistance in understanding and guiding collective behavior. The author, trained in the methods of psychiatry and anthropology, and his research staff were given an unique opportunity to inquire into the motivations, reactions, and attitudes of a community under stress; their goal was to discover "the laws of individual behavior," to view "the perennial social forces at work," to extract from their material "a few particular constants of practical value." This is a large order, but most readers will agree that the author is justified in believing that during the course of the inquiry his hands "groping blindly below the surface touched here and there on a real body of constants and laws in human living."

The community under analysis was the Colorado River Relocation Center for evacuated Japanese at Poston, Arizona. At first glance it might seem strange to conduct a search for the "universal, basic characteristics inherent in human nature" in one of the relocation camps resulting from the evacuation policy which one writer has called "our worst wartime mistake." Poston was completely atypical—a raw new racial community without economic foundation, created by military order and held together ultimately by the sanction of force. But further reflection makes it evident that it was precisely the atypicality of this community that made it so rewarding for study. Thousands of individuals, torn from the institutions and patterns of a settled way of life and thrown together in overcrowded barracks in the middle of a desert, were faced with the task of developing new institutions of leadership, adjustment, and co-operation—even if the co-operation was only for the purpose of resisting the authorities. This opportunity was an unparalleled one for observing how an atomistic collection of individuals becomes (if it does) a community and how that community will act under stress.

The initial part of Leighton's book tells "the story of Poston" graphically and with a wealth of documentation and detail made available by the methods of the survey. The first chapter recaptures, by liberal use of quotations from newspapers and other documentary material, the hysteria of the spring of 1942 which resulted in adoption of the evacuation policy. We see the muddled beginnings of Poston. We are made to feel something of the shock and bewilderment of

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the evacuees, many of them American citizens, as they moved into this new and, to them, completely unjust situation. We are acquainted with the principal characteristics of the evacuees, particularly the division into Isseis (original immigrants born in Japan), Niseis (American born and educated), and Kibei (American born but educated in Japan). We see the beginnings of self-government and social organization. We see the problems of the administrative officers responsible for the camp, split internally between the "people-minded," who view the evacuees as individuals for whose care and development they are responsible, and the "stereotype-minded," who regard the residents of the camp as an indistinguishable mass, racially and intellectually identified with an enemy nation and deserving subjects for concentration-camp treatment.

The story of Poston builds to a climax in the "strike" which occurred late in 1942. The events of the strike are recounted with scientific detachment and full documentation on issues and personalities, yet with an unusual sense of the drama of the situation. Largely from the good sense of the administrative officers at the center, the strike was handled without military intervention; and the whole affair, indeed, led to an improved spirit and to new measures of self-management.

If the book ended here, it would have told an absorbing story; but its significance would be limited. Leighton, however, has followed Tolstoy's recommendation that "only by taking an infinitesimally small unit for observation . . . and attaining to the art of integrating them (i.e., finding the sum of these infinitesimals) can we hope to arrive at the laws of history." So the story of Poston is followed by a second section of the book devoted to "principles and recommendations," drawn from this case history of a community under stress. Here we proceed from particulars to universals, and it is from this statement of principles that all individuals who are concerned with the management of men have much to learn. For example, the principle stated by Leighton that "co-operation, withdrawal and aggressiveness are three universal kinds of behavior with which individuals react to authority when subject to forces of stress that are disturbing to the emotions and thoughts of the individual" is no less applicable to a library staff than to the evacuees at Poston.

Leighton's principles and recommendations are presented under three major headings:

individuals under stress, systems of belief under stress, and social organization under stress. Illustrative material in support of the principles is drawn not only from the Poston experience but from more widely known instances of social disorganization and stress, such as the French Revolution and the Detroit race riots.

A review of this work would not be complete without a tribute to John Collier, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, for his initiative in setting up the social analysis unit at Poston. It is significant that this unit played no small part in advising the Poston administration on a course of action which resulted in peaceful termination of the strike, whereas an almost identical situation in another relocation center where there was no such unit eventuated in military intervention, bloodshed, and a permanently disorganized community.

Leighton's book and similar studies, among which the work with industrial employees carried on by Mayo and Roethlisberger may be mentioned, are the beginnings of a scientific understanding of human motivations in collective experience. They forecast the day when every management job of any importance will function with the assistance of staff members trained in social analysis and basic social science. Only then will there be hope of liquidating the lament of Danton before his execution, which gives the title to this book: "Oh, it were better to be a poor fisherman than to meddle with the governing of men."

C. HERMAN PRITCHETT

Department of Political Science
University of Chicago

Pointers for Public Library Building Planners.
By RUSSELL J. SCHUNK. Chicago: American Library Association, 1945. Pp. 67. \$1.25.

Mr. Schunk sums up years of experience and serious thought in these few pages, which he introduces as "an attempt to supply a compact, simple guide to public library planning"; and he explains that "its use should be supplemented by the lengthier works, as the planner considers necessary." He divides his subject into three parts: (1) the general development of the library project, including the particular duties of board, librarian, and architect, the campaign for funds, the building site, moving, remodeling; (2) pointers for detailed planning, with information concerning structure, equip-

ment, and miscellaneous matters; and (3) several pages of reference data, compiled from various sources, including a short bibliography. There are no plans presented, no photographs or illustrations of any sort, no tables; nor does he refer to particular cases as examples of his dictums. But I found his thinking so direct and definite, his writing so terse and to the point, that I could not put it down until I had read it through.

Being of a questioning nature, and accustomed to weigh laboriously the pros and cons of each matter, I was fascinated by its instant decisions in many cases that, it seemed to me, should depend on circumstances. For instance, in room shelving, that "all bottom shelves should be tilted" would be contradicted by many librarians; that "ceiling height should be no less than 14 feet in larger reading rooms" would be questioned in the application of the new unit construction now under development at Orange.

The greatest surprise is near the beginning. Mr. J. G. Rogers will find no sympathy here, in his plea to "give the architect your problem, not your solution of your problem"; for this booklet lifts the burden of planning the building from the bowed shoulders of the architect, and makes the sturdy librarian assume it:

Knowing the shape and size of the available site and having determined the general dimensions of the building . . . the librarian makes a rough sketch of the main floor. . . . The librarian indicates the location of the main entrance. Then he begins to rough in the outline of the reading rooms, charging and return area, and workrooms. . . . After the librarian has laid out all of the area of the main floor and has decided that he is satisfied with the relationship of one area to another, he should take his sketch to the architect and have him make a simple scale drawing. The architect will put in more details, such as interior doors, windows, shelving along reading room walls, etc. . . .

Yes, more power to you, Mr. Schunk! The architect's work is difficult enough; and it seems to me that the evolution of a simple, direct, and efficient plan is the most difficult part of it. If the librarian can plan the building, certainly let him do it. I think we can assure him our sincere co-operation—and our unbounded admiration, too. By all means let him try; there is no mortification in failure, and who knows what excellent arrangement he may evolve? I write this in all sincerity; but, as to his success, a shadow of doubt seems lurking in the background of my mind.

But, joking aside, there seems to be every reason for the librarian to take an active part in what the architect knows as the planning, the relation of rooms to each other, the map of the floor. If Mr. Schunk exaggerates the librarian's share in this, Mr. Rogers certainly minimizes it. I have found it pleasantest, and I think most successful, when each contributes freely, with frequent conferences, frank discussion, and unhesitating criticisms of each other's suggestions.

As to the booklet, you see that it "gives to think," as the French say. It is well worth reading carefully, and rereading. It states again in clear and simple language what we know but may forget; and it contains just enough matter that we disagree with to keep us intent on what the author is telling us.

ALFRED MORTON GITHENS

New York City

Donum Grapeanum: Festschrift tillägnad överbibliotekarien Anders Grape på sextiofemårsdagen den 7 Mars 1945, med bidrag av forna och nuvarande tjänstemän vid Uppsala universitetsbibliotek. Uppsala: Universitetets boktryckare (Almqvist & Wiksell), 1945. Pp. xv+640.

Dr. Anders Grape, chief of the Uppsala University Library, was deservedly complimented on his sixty-fifth birthday, in March, 1945, by this magnificent volume of thirty historical, literary, antiquarian, linguistic, and bibliographical papers written by colleagues and friends. The recipient thus was proved respected; that this respect is fully deserved was asserted by the readiness with which the university authorities successively approved and carried out Dr. Grape's ideas of improvements and expansions of buildings and service in his care. These are the subject of an exhaustive paper in this collection, by J. L. Samzelius.

Several other papers consider various special and personal collections successively procured by or donated to the university. Samuel E. Bring thus traces the history of a single book, George Dixon's *Voyage around the World*, which may have formed part of the collection used by Louis XVI during his detention in the Tour du Temple in 1792. Collander reviews the early North German imprints in the university

library. Heyman recounts the accession of the Drake archivalia, and Gustav Holmgren discusses the Cronstedt collection, mainly of Suecana, now rare and very important. The Arabic holdings in the university library are the subject of an exhaustive historical dissertation by A. B. Lewin, which is important in a general way because it touches upon a tradition of learning not known as it deserves.

The problem of special research and study-rooms is ventilated by Oscar Lundberg, with special reference to the seminar collections or otherwise segregated groups of specialia necessary for academic groups collectively engaged in research.

Of general interest is Alvar Silow's paper on library co-operation. It points out the progressive changes in the construction of social units of interest, such as the industrial and economic forms of activity, which demand a routine and service different from that of public or general libraries. Industrial growth looks forward and considers pertinent actualities, while humanistic direction is deeply interwoven with history. In other words, on one side we have cumulative registration for historical or elucidative purposes; on the other, we have documentation with practical ends (industrial developments and business) in view. The co-ordination of forces and methods in these diversified departments calls for judicious adjustment. This paper deserves to be translated into English; it touches a problem now alive in many of our own library centers.

Of great interest is Dr. Uggla's thorough analysis of an inventory by the great naturalist Linné of the medical collection of his father-in-law, Dr. Johan Moraeus. Very few such inventories are in existence. The list covers 446 titles.

Among the literary contributions, one, by D. Strömbäck, traces the genetic connection between Eastern and Western in the ancient motives of the folk-tale cycle known as the "Seven Wise Masters," dwelling especially on the Northern, notably the Icelandic, elements.

Various researches in Swedish history, linguistics, and literary antiquities or actualities complete the volume. Dr. Taube traces the various free dramatic fancies built around Gustavus Vasa's wanderings in Dalarne, and Ingrid Odelstierna contributes a most interesting historico-linguistic interpretation of an old *ex libris* inscription referring to books of learning as medicine for the soul.

The book reflects pleasantly Northern scholarship as related to literary objects or episodes. It breathes abroad that spirit of high accomplishment and physical elegance which marks all Swedish gestures. Between Eric Benzelius and Anders Gapse—by way of Claes Annerstedt—a long historical period intervenes, but purposeful scholarly administration of the Uppsala University Library remains a uniform tradition. With such an influence *tempora only mutantur*, not men or method.

J. CHRISTIAN BAY

*John Crerar Library
Chicago*

Children's Interests in Library Books of Fiction.

By MARIE RANKIN. ("Contributions to Education," No. 906.) New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. ix+146. \$1.85.

Here is an approach to reading, published as a doctoral dissertation under the aegis of Teachers College, which is capable of doing great harm, should it fall into the hands of the student-teacher or librarian who has had limited experience with children.

It is a study of the fiction-reading of children borrowing books from eight public libraries in the Middle West on an estimated circulation basis of one year. "The ten most highly popular books" from a list of thirty-five are analyzed. They are discovered to have "lucid, dynamic style," "high emotional tone," "conventional resolution of plot." "The age of the principal characters is analyzed, the format, the grade placement of the reading material"; and "the average sentence length and the ratio of prepositional phrases" are also computed in relation to "readability."

This group of books is then contrasted with the books which have been given the Newbery awards throughout the years; and they, too, are analyzed according to the criteria indicated above. Early in the study (p. 25), the possibility of the conclusions is indicated:

The possibilities are that some qualities found in the "sub-standard" reading of children, e.g., in comic books, big-little books, etc., if added to the qualities now to be found in "approved" books of fiction, would attract more children. Another study might well be devoted to the search for qualities in "sub-standard" material, that could probably be

added to the present inventory of appeals in approved literature for children.

Even in its own terms of pseudo science this study is weak. What books were classified as fiction in these libraries? Was *Mary Poppins* so classified? How was the fiction shelved? To what extent was the book collection selective? How much time was spent in reading guidance through book talks, story-telling, and work with schools? These are all conditional factors which are not considered.

Nor are the Newbery books a criterion for the type which the author refers to as "approved." The Newbery award represents the book judged to be the best in its year. Not every year produces a piece of literature.

This study fails to take into account three basic controls: first, the variety and subtlety of influences which control children's reading interests; second, the ability of children to develop as readers; and, third, the contribution of the creative writer.

Children's interests are influenced, first, by the type of material made available and by the manner in which the material is introduced or presented. There are innumerable other influences, not so easily accounted for. I have on my desk a letter which one girl wrote to another (the letter was intercepted by the teacher) in which the writer reveals that the reason she went to the library and "got out some books" was that the librarian had such a good looking "up-sweep hair-do" when she came to visit the school. Jacques Barzun, in his *Teacher in America*, says something which is pertinent here. He is speaking of the value of oral and written work as a basis of judging the intellectual attainments of students. "If it is argued that this is not 'objective' or 'scientific,' I reply that objectivity applies, as its name suggests, to objects; and that science cannot help us classify the things we care about when we enter the realm of the mind."

The author's lack of faith in the ability of the child to develop as a reader is a lamentable point of view in a study which is one in a series bearing the subtitle "contributions to education." She says, in effect, that children like the topical, the journalistic, the mediocre: that we must meet them on that ground and convert everything else to this standard in order to have more reading by more children. She quotes a passage from *Waterless Mountain* in which a young Navajo says: "Wind, I am your child for your trail is marked on the ends of my finger.

Cloud, I am your child for you have brought the rain to the parched earth and the corn is green." Her comment upon this passage is: "Few children have been found who seem able to believe that modern Indian boys speak this way." If this be so—I remember the impact of this story upon a fifth-grade class in a school in the Far West—if this be so, then is the book to be condemned, the Indian, the author, or might we, perhaps, lay the blame on the teacher or the librarian and our system of education? Children "have been found who seem able to believe" that five and seven equal twelve. Why cannot they be taught the truth that the Navajo's kinship to nature is the source of a beautiful, living way of life which flourishes and increases in the very middle of our complex, gadget-ridden civilization? That is a fascinating piece of knowledge. It is worth communicating.

It is easier to read the journalistic, the fast-paced story, the book without subtlety or deeply felt emotion. The greater the book, the more it demands of its reader in emotional response, in imagination, and in thought. What if more children read *Sue Barton* than *Gay-Neck, the Pigeon* in the year 1941? Children have been reading *Gay-Neck* ever since it was published in 1927. Twenty years from now *Sue Barton* will be out of date, her trials outmoded, her adventures dim; but both boys and girls will still be excited over the discovery of Mukerji. One book is topical, journalistic, written to a formula; the other, universal and enduring. There is room in every library for both types of reading. There are children for both types of reading. The excitement, and the obligation, consists in making certain that each child has the opportunity to respond at the peak of his ability.

Nothing of this challenge is inherent in this study. It foredooms growth from the beginning. Its analysis of *Gay-Neck* and *The Cat Who Went to Heaven* is a travesty on book evaluation. Only a person blinded by a method of study, bearing the weight of a foreordained conclusion, could have been so unimaginative in response to these books, which are "the precious life blood of a master spirit, embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life." This is a method which should never be applied to the art of reading. It merits Masefield's judgment:

But trained men's minds are spread so thin
They let all sorts of darkness in.

FRANCES CLARKE SAYERS

New York Public Library

ught the green." Few children believe we "ay." If it is story the Far be con- ght we, or the children believe" cannot avajo's utiful, reases adget- piece of

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Proce- dings: 3rd and 4th Annual Meetings and Conferences and 5th Annual Meeting. Issued by the AUSTRALIAN INSTITUTE OF LIBRA- RIANS. Canberra: Australian Institute of Librarians, 1944. Pp. 159.

The Australian Institute of Librarians differs from the American Library Association in that membership is limited to those who are elected by the institute's council, upon proof that they are "qualified by special training and experience for the profession of librarianship." Student membership is open to those who are "in training for the profession of librarianship in a library or library school approved by the Council." In 1942 there were 169 members and 64 student associates.

This restriction of membership reflects the cleavage between Australia's rather few professionally minded librarians and the large number of men and women who are employed in mechanics' institutes and schools of art. These subscription libraries, sometimes combined with social halls and billiard rooms, still dominate the Australian scene, though only a handful of them even pretend to offer effective service. Quite naturally, the professional librarians are unwilling to place the employees of these institutions in position to represent Australian librarianship.

The institute, founded in 1937, maintains branches in New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Tasmania, and the Capital Territory (Canberra). Institute committees have been active in training and certifying librarians, bibliography, and classification. Proceedings of institute conferences have been published for 1938 and 1939. The present volume includes those of 1940 and 1941, when conferences were interrupted by the war.

The administration of archives was the theme of the 1940 conference. Librarians from the commonwealth and state libraries constitute a substantial part of the membership, and this topic is vital to them. The various phases of library co-operation formed the central topic in 1941.

Except in bibliographical processes, Australian libraries have lagged far behind those of the other English-speaking countries. There is not a creditable public library—as we know that term—in the entire country. Not more than a dozen Australian librarians have observed library activities abroad. It is, therefore, quite natural and proper that institute papers be overladen with examples from abroad and quotations from

British and American authorities. The *Proceedings* should not be overlooked by American librarians who desire a better understanding of library conditions in Australia.

RALPH MUNN

Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh

American Diaries. An Annotated Bibliography of American Diaries Written Prior to the Year 1861. Compiled by WILLIAM MATTHEWS with the assistance of ROY HARVEY PEARCE. ("University of California Publications in English," edited by S. V. HUSTVEDT, E. N. HOOKER, and DIXON WECTER, Vol. XVI.) Berkeley: University of California Press, 1945. Pp. xiv+384. Cloth, \$4.00; paper, \$3.50.

If history is a record of the doings and thoughts of people in the past, the diaries which contain what some of them thought important enough to be set down are foundation stones among historical source materials. In time this list of Mr. Matthews will enrich our written history. It will also guide readers who are not historical scholars to the real stuff and essence of the American past.

Keeping journals has now fallen out of fashion, but before the Civil War we were a diary-writing 'folk,' as Mr. Matthews' three thousand-odd entries attest. He lists printed diaries wherever they have appeared—in books, collections of source materials, and periodicals. They are of all kinds—military, religious, travel, private, and political—and his discriminating descriptive comments on each show a pleasing enthusiasm for diarists. A typical comment:

Stockton, Betsey, Negro missionary. Missionary journal, November 1822—July 1823; voyage from Philadelphia around Cape Horn to Sandwich Islands; good descriptions of cruise, fishing, ceremonies, social life, arrival at Hawaii, description of island; an interesting journal.

Matthews, who once edited the unusual diary of Dudley Ryder, has good taste in these matters.

The diaries are grouped chronologically, and there is an alphabetical index. The usefulness of the book would be increased if there were subject and place indexes as well. Anyone who wants to know, for instance, what travel diaries to the West Indies there are has no convenient means of finding the information.

In a modest Introduction the compiler ad-

mits that his list may not be complete. It was a large task he set himself, for he includes journals by foreigners in the territory of the United States. The question inevitably arises whether he has tapped Continental sources as faithfully as he seems to have done English. There are no French names in the Index, nor evidence that such a work as Frank Monaghan's *French Travelers in the United States* has been gone through. There are no German or Italian entries.

STANLEY PARGELLIS

Newberry Library
Chicago

Libraries Guests of the Vaticana during the Second World War, with the Catalogue of the Exhibition. Vatican City: Apostolic Vatican Library, 1945. Pp. 70.

The Vatican Library issued this extremely interesting brochure to commemorate its exhibition of treasures from other Italian libraries—treasures many of which still remain in existence only because of the great care and hospitality extended them by Vatican authorities during the years 1943-45, when war threatened on all sides but did not enter within the walls of the Holy See. The exhibition was held in the spring of 1945, when war had left Rome and its vicinity for more northern areas and when, because of that fact, the treasures were "about to be restored to their respective homes, at least to those which have remained intact and in a condition to house them in safety."

Material from twenty-six libraries and archives found temporary sanctuary within the walls of the Vatican Library; and from these sources a selection of 228 separately cataloged items, as well as many beautifully illuminated choral books and a large seven-volume illuminated Bible, comprised the exhibition displayed in the Vatican's famous Sistine Room. Manuscripts in both roll and codex forms, monastic rules, early music of the church, writings of famous ecclesiastics, books of hours, together with incunabula from the presses of Subiaco and Rome and a remarkable collection of bindings from the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, make up the catalog—truly a listing over which the American librarian and collector will pore with admiration and deep gratitude that so much of beauty and historical value has been spared the ravages of war and

the human greed which such conflict unlooses. And yet this exhibition catalog, engrossing as it is, is dwarfed in interest and value for the reader by Father Albareda's modest Introduction and the "Chronicle Notes," in which are set forth, in all too brief form, the forethought and planning of Vatican authorities, such as Cardinal Giovanni Mercati, Monsignor Angelo Mercati, and Professor Giulio Battelli, together with some of the difficulties they encountered in their labors to preserve the recorded culture of past ages.

The territory from which the Vatican received the libraries and archives mentioned above may be described as a semicircular arc, with Rome as its center, extending approximately from sixty to seventy miles northwest, north, east, and southeast. Probably the source now best known to Americans from which came a wealth of treasures was the Abbey of Montecassino, and it is a great relief to learn that so many of its precious books and manuscripts are preserved to posterity. The Seminary Library of Frascati, the Abbey of Grottaferrata, the libraries of the Franciscan convents at Poggio Nativo and Ponticelli, and the Chigi Archive at Ariccia, together with thirteen collections in Rome itself, were the chief sources from which books, manuscripts, and various objects of art converged on the Vatican for shelter.

It is a satisfaction to be able to record that certain officers and men of the German army were genuinely co-operative in the endeavor to save libraries and archives, as well as to find that Allied officers really were ready and willing to put into effect plans for salvage and protection in damaged localities.

Brief historical sketches of the contributing libraries and archives add to the value of the booklet, as do many good halftone illustrations. Especially effective are several illustrations showing the removal of books from Frascati and their arrival and storage at the Vatican. Only those who have had to plan for the removal of library treasures to far-flung places of safety can fully appreciate the risks involved in such hurried removals of books and manuscripts as those from Frascati, Montecassino, and some of the Roman libraries.

The English translation of the text is crudely but effectively done, and the printing combines well with the illustrations.

LESLIE E. BLISS

Henry E. Huntington Library
San Marino, California

BOOK NOTES

Las Actividades hispánicas de la Biblioteca del Congreso. Issued by the LIBRARY OF CONGRESS. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945. Pp. 39.

The Hispanic resources of the Library of Congress and their development are described in this illustrated pamphlet, which surveys the Library's activities in this field. A résumé of its varied services is followed by a history of the Hispanic Foundation and a detailed description of the Hispanic Room. In carrying out the principal aim of the Hispanic Foundation—to gather an eminently good collection of printed materials relating to Spain, Portugal, and the countries of Latin America—assistance of specialists in learned societies, libraries, and universities in these countries has been sought. Other methods used and resources available to attain the aims of the Foundation are reviewed. The richness of the resources of the Library of Congress in Hispanic materials is shown by listing rare works owned and by indicating the completeness of holdings of printed books, manuscripts, maps, official publications, legal works, and holdings in the fine arts and music. Planned bibliographical and editorial projects of the Library of Congress on Hispanic subjects are mentioned, including the provisional preparation of the annual *Handbook of Latin American Studies*. A complete list of publications it has issued covering Hispanic topics is appended.

A Reader's Guide to the British Library of Political and Economic Science, London School of Economics and Political Science, University of London. 3d ed. London: London School of Economics, 1945. 1s.

Every library faces the problem of describing its content and organization to users, and the larger and the more specialized the library, the more difficult the problem. In this guide, the British Library of Political and Economic Science has done an admirable job of revealing its resources to users. The descriptions of collections and arrangement are clear and simple. For the most part, the language is non-technical without becoming patronizing. The reader is given many bibliographical suggestions that a less intelligent guide would have omitted; for example, the British reader about to use official publications of the government of the United States is referred to the *United States Government Manual*. He is told what the catalog does not contain as well as what it contains. By its very competence in describing the library's present complex organization, this guide leads one to raise the question of whether that organization is the one best suited to users of the library.

U.S.A. Book News: The Interamerican Book Trade Journal, Vol. I, No. 1 (January, 1946). Published monthly by *Publishers' Weekly* in association with the United States International Book Association. Pp. 90. \$2.00 per year.

This new publication, which is an inter-American edition of *Publishers' Weekly*, has as its objective the development of the Latin-American market for books published in the United States. Identical in format with the *Publishers' Weekly*, this first issue of the *U.S.A. Book News* draws heavily upon material already issued in the older journal, and, in addition, carries feature articles dealing with book developments and methods of merchandising which will presumably be of interest to Latin-American book-sellers. The *News* was suggested by, and has the active support of, the newly organized United States International Book Association, representing some seventy book publishers who have united to improve the world distribution of books published in this country and "to create greater international cultural exchange."

Mémoires de la Société royale du Canada, Sections I et II, 1882-1943: Index. By LUCIEN BRAULT. Ottawa: Editions de l'Université d'Ottawa, 1944. Pp. 112. (Distributed by the Ottawa Historical Institute, 360 Stewart St., Ottawa.)

M. Brault, historian of the city of Ottawa, has performed a service for the research worker in bringing up to date the index of the *Mémoires* of the Canadian Royal Society (the last previous index was compiled by Benjamin Sulte in 1908). The bulk of the material is of interest chiefly to historians. Author and subject entries are combined in a single alphabet. Some of the entries are in French and some in English, depending on the language used in the item indexed. Dates of birth, election, and death are added to the names of members of the Society.

World War II in Our Magazines and Books, September 1939 to September 1945: A Bibliography. Compiled by HENRY O. SPIER. New York: Stuyvesant Press Corp., 1945. Pp. 96. \$2.25.

Fifteen hundred books, selected from two thousand known to the author, and articles from thirty-four nationally known magazines are listed under four categories. Part I, "Foreign Countries," ranges the world; Part II, "United States," is subdivided by topics such as "Censorship and Information," "Neutrality," and "Theaters of War"; Part III, "General Aspects," consists of nine sections, including "Aerial Warfare," "Geopolitics," and "Propaganda"; and Part IV deals with the manifold

problems of world peace. Each part and section shows magazine articles and books separately, both in chronological order. Citations consist of brief title, author, publisher, and original price for books; title, author, and magazine for articles. A supplement to cover the uncensored history of the war is promised.

Selection of Students for Vocational Training. By FRED M. FOWLER; issued by the U.S. Office of Education. ("Vocational Division Bulletins," No. 232; "Occupational Information and Guidance Series," No. 13.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945. Pp. iv + 156.

The need for wise selection and competent guidance of students in the field of vocational training has led to the compilation of this bulletin. It is based on the practices reported by selected schools with strong vocational programs throughout the United States; this material is not, however, treated statistically but rather is used to isolate and analyze the problems involved, to state the principles which apply, and to describe practices which seem to meet the needs. Appendixes include selected references and sample record forms useful in the guidance program. Since librarians are often called upon to act as counselors of students or to assist such counselors, this publication should prove a useful tool for them.

A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States. Compiled under the direction of CARTER V. GOOD. Washington: American Council on Education, 1945. Pp. xv + 681. \$5.00. (Quarto; lithoprinted.)

This bulky volume will be an invaluable reference tool for librarians called on to furnish information to returning veterans who wish to take advantage of the educational provisions of the G.I. Bill of Rights. In addition to data on location, kind of school, size, entrance requirements, curriculum, degree, and tuition, there are a number of special items of concern to the veteran: credit for work taken in the armed services, physical education requirements for veterans, housing available for married students, opportunities for part-time employment and local rates of pay, campus regulations on drinking, smoking, dancing, automobiles, chapel attendance, etc. The guide covers approximately 3,400 college administrative units in some 1,700 institutions of collegiate level, both accredited and unaccredited. The information is presented in tabular form.

"Union List of Microfilms: Supplement 3 (1944)." By THE COMMITTEE ON MICROPHOTOGRAPHY, PHILADELPHIA BIBLIOGRAPHICAL CENTER AND UNION LIBRARY CATALOG. Philadelphia, 1946. Pp. xiv + 232. \$3.25. (Mimeographed.)

Because of the absence of the former editor, Rudolf Hirsch, this latest supplement to the very

useful *Union List of Microfilms* (see *Library Quarterly*, XII [1942], 875-78), has been prepared under the direction of Charles C. Mish, who has just been appointed to succeed Hirsch as director of the Bibliographical Center. Despite this change in editorship, there have been no important alterations in the editorial policies of this "Union List." The present supplement contains 2,895 entries submitted by eighty-seven co-operating libraries. Holdings reported indicate a rather sharp drop over previous lists, which may be attributed to restriction in microfilming activities as a result of the war. Future plans as announced by the editor presuppose a continuation of such supplements in the future and a cumulative index of authors which will greatly facilitate the use of these excellent compilations.

Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities, 1944-45. Compiled for the ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH LIBRARIES; edited by ARNOLD H. TROTIER. ("Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities," No. 12.) New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1945. Pp. xv + 68. \$1.50.

The twelfth volume of this familiar compilation is the first to be edited by Arnold H. Trotier, of the University of Illinois Library. Following the custom of his predecessors, Trotier has arranged the material first by broad subject areas, subdivided by field and by academic institution. The subject index and statistical tables are invaluable features. The number of dissertations submitted in 1945 represents about half the number given in 1940; that war and scholarship cannot amicably coexist is borne out by that figure.

One Hundred Books on Architecture. Compiled by TURPIN C. BANNISTER. (Reprinted from the *Journal of the American Institute of Architects*, November, 1945.) Pp. 6. Free.

Public libraries generally, and especially small libraries with limited budgets, will find this list useful as a buying guide. It has been compiled by the Committee on Education of the American Institute of Architects and appeared in the Institute's *Journal*. Copies of the list may be secured on request from the Institute, 1741 New York Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Petroleum Periodicals. By MARGARET M. ROCO, ELIZABETH NUTTING, and KATHERINE KARPENSTEIN. (Reprinted from *Special Libraries* October, 1945.) Pp. 16. \$0.10.

Three special librarians collaborate in this article, reprinted from *Special Libraries*, to describe the more frequently used periodicals in a petroleum library. Some ninety titles are mentioned, together with the salient facts about each. Although prepared primarily with the needs of the new assistant in mind, the article will be helpful to the reference librarian in any large public library.

BOOKS RECEIVED

American Book-Prices Current: A Record of the Books, Manuscripts, Autographs and Maps Sold in the Principal Auction Rooms of the United States during the Season 1944-1945. Edited by COLTON STORM. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1945. Pp. xi+639.

The Appraisal of Current Practices in Reading. Compiled and edited by WILLIAM S. GRAY. ("Supplementary Educational Monographs," No. 61; "Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading Held at the University of Chicago," Vol. VII.) Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Pp. vii+255. \$2.00.

Bøker om Norges kamp: Bibliografiske samlinger. By SIGMUND SKARD. Washington: Royal Norwegian Information Service, 1945. Pp. 96.

The Book of the States: 1945-46, Vol. VI. Chicago: Council of State Governments, 1945. Pp. xii+724. \$5.00.

Books and Libraries in Wartime. Edited by PIERCE BUTLER. ("Charles R. Walgreen Foundation Lectures.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Pp. 159. \$1.50.

British Civilization and Institutions: A Book List. Compiled by the BRITISH COUNCIL. Chicago: American Library Association, 1946. Pp. 75. \$1.00.

Buying List of Books for Small Libraries. Compiled by MARION HORTON. 7th ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1945. Pp. vi+134.

The Cambridge Press, 1638-1692: A Reexamination of the Evidence concerning the Bay Psalm Book and the Eliot Indian Bible, as well as Other Contemporary Books and People. By GEORGE PARKER WINSHIP. ("Rosenbach Fellowship in Bibliography Publications.") Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1945. Pp. ix+385. \$5.00.

Catalogue of Hebrew and Yiddish Manuscripts and Books from the Library of Sholem Asch. Compiled by LEON NEMOV. ("Yale University Library Miscellanies," No. 5.) New Haven: Yale University Library, 1945. Pp. xxii+69. \$2.00.

Claremont College Reading Conference: Tenth Yearbook, 1945. Claremont, Calif.: Claremont College Library, 1945. Pp. 159. \$2.50.

Claremont Colleges Reading Conference: Ninth Yearbook, 1944. Claremont, Calif.: Claremont Colleges Library, 1944. Pp. 167. \$2.50.

Classified Catalogue Code. By S. R. RANGANATHAN. 2d ed. ("Madras Library Association Publication Series," No. 13.) Madras: Thompson & Co., Ltd., 1945. Pp. 328.

County Government Organization in California. By ROBERT W. BINKLEY, JR. Berkeley: Bureau

of Public Administration, University of California, 1945. Pp. 69. (Mimeo graphed.)

Current Serials in Chemistry: A Study of the Titles Held in Colorado and Wyoming Libraries, with a Supplement Including Titles of Serials in Chemistry and a Union List of Holdings. By JAMES G. HODGSON. ("Library Bulletins," No. 17.) Fort Collins: Colorado A. & M. College Library, 1945. Pp. 51. (Mimeo graphed.)

Dictionary Catalogue Code. By S. R. RANGANATHAN. ("Madras Library Association Publication Series," No. 14.) Madras: Thompson & Co., Ltd., 1945. Pp. 320.

Education in Chile. By CAMERON D. EBAUGH. ("Office of Education Bulletins," No. 10 [1945].) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945. Pp. vii+123. \$0.25.

Education for Rural America. Edited by FLOYD W. REEVES. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Pp. 213. \$2.50.

The End of the War in the Pacific: Surrender Documents in Facsimile. ("National Archives Publications," No. 46-6.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945. \$0.30.

General Education in a Free Society: Report of the Harvard Committee. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1945. Pp. xix+267. \$2.00.

Higher Education Looks Ahead: A Roundup on Post-war Planning in Higher Education. By ERNEST V. HOLLIS and RALPH C. M. FLYNT. ("U.S. Office of Education Bulletins," No. 8 [1945].) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945. Pp. 98. \$0.20.

Historia, organización y servicios de la Biblioteca del Congreso de los Estados Unidos de América. By JORGE B. VIVAS. Buenos Aires, 1945. Pp. 47.

Hollywood Quarterly, Vol. I, No. 1 (October, 1945). Published under the joint sponsorship of the University of California and the Hollywood Writers Mobilization by the University of California Press, Berkeley. Pp. vi+129. \$4.00 per year; single copies, \$1.25.

Jonathan Swift, 1667-1745: An Exhibition of Printed Books at the University of Texas, October 19-December 31, 1945, Described by Autrey Nell Wiley. [Austin, 1945.] Pp. 48. \$1.00.

The Journal of Documentation: Devoted to the Recording, Organization, and Dissemination of Specialized Knowledge, Vol. I, No. 1 (June, 1945). Published quarterly by the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux, London. Pp. 62. \$6.00 per year; free to members of Aslib.

Law Training in Continental Europe: Its Principles and Public Functions. By ERIC F. SCHWEDBURG. ("Public Service and Law-School Training

Series.") New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1945. Pp. 129. \$1.00.

Library Extensions—Problems and Solutions: Papers Presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 21-26, 1944. Edited by CARLETON B. JOECKEL. ("University of Chicago Studies in Library Science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946. Pp. 260. \$3.00.

Library Resources of the University of North Carolina: A Summary of Facilities for Study and Research. Edited by CHARLES E. RUSH. ("University of North Carolina Sesquicentennial Publications.") Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1945. \$3.50.

Library Service to Business: Its Place in the Small City. By MARIAN C. MANLEY. Chicago: American Library Association, 1946. Pp. 72. \$1.25.

Netherlands East Indies: A Bibliography of Books Published after 1930, and Periodical Articles after 1932, Available in U.S. Libraries. Compiled by the NETHERLANDS STUDIES UNIT OF THE GENERAL REFERENCE AND BIBLIOGRAPHY DIVISION. Washington: Reference Department, Library of Congress, 1945. Pp. 208.

Pointers for Public Library Building Planners. By RUSSELL J. SCHUNK. Chicago: American Library Association, 1945. Pp. 67. \$1.25.

Programme for Library Development in British Columbia. Prepared by the JOINT COMMITTEE ON LIBRARY POLICY. Victoria, B.C., 1945. Pp. 36.

Propaganda, Communication, and Public Opinion: A Comprehensive Reference Guide. By BRUCE LANNES SMITH, HAROLD D. LASSWELL, and RALPH D. CASEY. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1946. Pp. viii+435. \$5.00.

Proverbs and How To Collect Them. By MARGARET M. BRYANT. ("Publications of the American Dialect Society," No. 4.) American Dialect Society, 1945. Pp. 25. (Obtainable from the Secretary of the Society, Woman's College of the University of North Carolina, Greensboro.)

Publicity Primer: An ABC of "Telling All" about the Public Library. By MARIE D. LOIZEAUX. 3d ed., rev. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1945. Pp. 103. \$1.00.

Reading in Bristol: Annual Report of the Public Libraries Committee, 1944-1945. Bristol, England, 1945. Pp. 32.

Reading Difficulty and Personality Organization. By EDITH GANN. New York: King's Crown Press, 1945. Pp. xii+149. \$2.00.

Renaissance Guides to Books: An Inventory and Some Conclusions. By ARCHER TAYLOR. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1945. Pp. 130. \$1.50.

Report of the President, the Secretary, and the Treasurer for the Year Ended September 30, 1945. New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1945. Pp. 71.

"Report on a Survey of Postwar Library Building Needs of the Dayton Public Library and Museum." By JOSEPH L. WHEELER for the Board of Trustees of the Dayton Public Library and Museum. Dayton, Ohio: Dayton Public Library and Museum, 1945. Pp. 55. (Mimeoographed.)

"Report of a Survey of the Young Men's Library Association of Augusta for the Board of Directors." By TOMMIE DORA BARKER. [Augusta], 1945. Pp. 47. (Mimeoographed.)

Royal Commissions and Commissions of Inquiry under the "Public Inquiries Act" in British Columbia, 1872-1942: A Checklist. By MARJORIE C. HOLMES. Victoria, B.C., [1945]. \$1.00.

Short-Title Catalogue of Books Printed in England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales, and British America and of English Books Printed in Other Countries, 1641-1700, Vol. I. Compiled by DONALD WING. New York: Index Society, 1945. Pp. xvii+562. \$1.50.

Some Educational Problems in Peru. By MAX H. MINÁNO-GARCÍA. ("University of Texas Institute of Latin-American Studies, Occasional Series," No. 1.) Austin: University of Texas Press, 1945. Pp. 70.

Soviet Schools in War and Peace. By IRENE J. MILLER. San Francisco: American Russian Institute, 1945. Pp. 5. Free.

"State Administrative Machinery for the Conciliation and Mediation of Labor Disputes." By JOHN F. DUFFY, JR. Berkeley: Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, 1945. Pp. 48. (Mimeoographed.)

State Programs for the Improvement of Teacher Education. By CHARLES E. PRALL. Prepared for the Commission on Teacher Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1946. Pp. xi+379. \$3.00.

A State University Surveys the Humanities. Edited by LOREN C. MACKINNEY, NICHOLSON B. ADAMS, and HARRY K. RUSSELL. ("University of North Carolina Sesquicentennial Publications," LOUIS R. WILSON, director.) Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1945. Pp. xi+262. \$4.00.

Tell the People: Talks with James T. Farley about the Mass Education Movement. By PEARL S. BUCK. New York: John Day Co., 1945. Pp. 84. \$1.50.

Voluntary Health Agencies: An Interpretive Study. By SELSKAR M. GUNN and PHILIP S. PLATT, under the auspices of the National Health Council. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1945. Pp. xviii+364. \$3.00.

Walt Whitman Handbook. By GAY WILSON ALLEN. Chicago: Packard & Co., 1946. \$3.00.

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